The Nation.

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The Week.

In addition to his general humane impulse to act as peacemaker in Central America, President Roosevelt may well be moved by the desire to prevent the approaching Pan-American Conference at Rio de Janeiro from appearing a failure. With three or four of the constituent nations at war, the impressiveness of the gathering as a peace spectacle would be much cut into. On this and every other ground, it is to be hoped that the good offices of this country may be availed of to avert further bloodshed. The causes of the tri-lateral quarrel are more than usually obscure, even for Central American republics. Apparently, it is one of the wretched contests between military oligarchs over again. With the United States intervening in a friendly way, actively seconded by Mexico, the trouble ought to be composed speedily. Yet the bad conditions will continue; and nominal peace can hardly blind the Rio Congress to the constant liability to war. The general arbitration treaty may be, in consequence, revived. The South American countries are believed to be ready for it. Unhappily, it is the United States that has been backward. The first Pan-American Congress recommended such a common treaty of arbitration, and it won for Mr. Blaine the tremulous thanks of the aged Whittier. But the Senate declined to ratify it. And if Mr. Root were to bring forward the project again at Rio, he would be much embarrassed, not only by that historic fact, but also by President Roosevelt's steady refusal to arbitrate our differences with Colombia, growing out of his ill-considered course when Panama set up for herself.

To clean and progressive Republicans of New York, the present posture of their party affairs must seem ominous. Across the face of the returns of the last election, plain amid the confusion attending other issues, the voters wrote, "We have done with our bosses." But now, within less than a year, there is a stirring in that cave of darkness whither the fugitive bosses fled after last year's storm. Senator Platt once more summons his creatures. Odell, whose share of popular scorn has been more ample than that of any man in public life for a generation, again erects his standard. Lemuel Ely Quigg, banished from public life by a general indignation which even the bosses who employed him could not withstand, sails across the horizon in his yacht. Those who in the various communities of the State have endeavored to bring a little decency into politics are left by the wayside. When the election is over, bosses may quarrel over the spoils; may scream and denounce some more fortunate plunderer who carries off the lion's share of the booty. But to quarrel when a new election is at hand, to risk the loss of all the plunder—this is not the way of the boss. Each party is waiting for the other—waiting for it to do its worst. Odell and Platt in unison ought to sink any ticket; but, then, the Republican bosses are hoping that Hearst will frighten enough decent people into their arms to save the day.

The Hearst plan of campaign for the Governorship of New York is now pretty clearly disclosed—a matter of serious consideration far beyond the boundaries of this State. His first assault is to be upon the Democratic nomination. He has suddenly become "regular." The resolutions in his favor which his agents supplied the Broome County convention on Saturday, state that he is "a lifelong Democrat," who has "invariably been a loyal supporter of national and State Democratic nominees" (municipal nominees not mentioned). Hence the appropriateness of a Hearst demand that the Democratic party make him its candidate. The first proud scheme of a separate nomination by the Independence League has been quietly dropped. If Hearst gets the regular party nomination, he will continue to be a lifelong Democrat; if not, he will immediately become a lifelong bolter. In either case, the prospect is not pleasant for New York Democrats. They have to face a formidable attack. The Democratic organization throughout the State became degraded to the level of the boss—David B. Hill—to whom it was for so many years subservient, and when he dropped it, the purchase of its fag-ends was comparatively easy. The chief resource of Hearst, next to money, is clamor. His campaign is distinctly planned to win success by the slum and rowdy vote of both parties. His aim is to marshal the discontented, the credulous, the purchaseable, the riff-raff of all parties. Unless self-respecting Democrats bestir themselves, they will see the Democracy of New York, which has fed upon the fair mountain with Tilden and Cleveland, battening upon the moor with Hearst.

A rare virtue attaches to the protest of Mrs. Mary Schauffler Labaree against the action of our Government in exacting an indemnity of $50,000 from Persia for the killing of her husband, a missionary, by native religious fanatics. Recognizing her right as an American citizen to such indemnity, she preferred to waive it for the sake of the mission cause, which is as dear to her as it was to her murdered husband. The matter, she pointed out, would not be understood by the Persians, who would speak of it as "blood money"; and this forcible extortion by the United States of payment might thus do "serious and lasting injury" to Christian missions in Persia. Such considerations could not, of course, weigh with an Administration bent upon upholding our dignity abroad. The money was collected, though as a special grace our Minister obtained a promise that it should not be levied as a peculiar tax upon the inhabitants of the province where the murder took place. But Mrs. Labaree's spirit is certainly a better exponent of Christianity than a thousand sermons. It does not, we regret to say, always characterize missionary boards. Some of their demands for rough action by this country in heathen lands Secretary Hay was known to characterize as "bloodthirsty."

The tabular statement of the year's appropriations which is now printed in the *Congressional Record*, shows that the House has not asserted itself in money matters against the Senate quite so successfully as in the past few years. To the supply bills as passed by the House, the Senate added, following its custom, the sum of $22,185,682. It was the business of the several conference committees to decide how much of the amount, after the House had decided "this much and no more," should remain in the bill for the President's signature. Mr. Cannon went into the Speakership with very decided ideas of his own about standing up for the rights of the House. The first years he backed up the House representatives in the conferences, and met with gratifying success. This year, perhaps, the demands of general legislation tended rather to weaken the grip on appropriations. At all events, besides increasing at a larger rate than in former years, the appropriations have conformed very much more nearly to the Senate's than the House's desires. Out of the twenty-two millions embraced in Senate amendments $16,281,131 was carried by the law as finally passed. This means that the Senate, which, judged by this test, had been losing ground steadily for four years, has renewed its old-time successes in getting appropriations. We are back to the good old days when the Senate regularly got some three-fourths of the additions it asked for. And, as the Senate went beyond the other body this year in

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hard work and popular legislation, it may have deserved what it got.

The only hitch in the plans of Vice-President Fairbanks for winning, this summer, the support of the farmers occurred last week, when his automobile ran down the buggy of a Democrat. Doubtless, Mr. Fairbanks meant to clothe himself in jeans and a wide straw hat, and shoulder a hay-fork before getting into the news dispatches or in front of the camera. Now it is a fair question, "Is this son of the soil, who journeys to his hayfield in a touring car, the 'real thing'?" Regarding certain other statesmen lately in the public eye there is no doubt. When Andrew L. Harris succeeded to the Governorship of Ohio the other day, he was engaged in relaying the stone foundations of a barn on his farm in Preble County. Dropping his tools, he packed a bag, seized a coat and umbrella, and, despite his seventy years, strode off briskly to catch a trolley car for the nearest railway station. The barn is yet unfinished, and the tools are rusting where they were dropped. Gov. Harris's one expression of regret, when he is mentioned as the Republican candidate to succeed himself, is that he can't go back to the farm and finish that job. Mr. Coburn of Kansas, a better friend to the cow than to the country, since he refused a Senatorship in order to keep his job as Secretary of the State Board of Agriculture, is another genuine agricultural product. But Mr. Fairbanks—the automobile story makes us doubt him.

Although a general election in Germany is still distant, politicians there are ever watching to see whether the growth of the Socialist party is continuing. Two recent elections have thrown some light on the movement of public opinion. In Hanover the Socialists elected their candidate by 31,803 votes, against 30,596 for the four other candidates, showing, for the first time since the election of 1903, a handsome gain. But their increase was not so great relatively as that of the National Liberals nor their majority so large as three years ago. In Altena-Iserlohn, where the other contest took place, a second election became necessary between the Centre and the Socialists. Owing to the failure to bring about the usual combination of the other parties, the Socialists again won an unexpected and decisive victory and obtained a seat they had never before held. In revenge for this failure of the Liberals to support the Centre, the latter party has informed its followers that they may vote, if they please, for the Socialist candidate to-day, when the seat so long held for the Radicals by Eugene Richter is to be filled. From all indications, therefore, his successor is likely to be a follower of Bebel. Three successive Socialist victories would make the conservative parties and court circles distinctly uncomfortable.

All that human justice can do to right the world-echoing wrongs of Capt. Dreyfus has now been done. The highest court in France at last decides that there never was any case against him; that the Rennes trial was vitiated by forged evidence and monstrous inference from trifles light as air; and that he is now entitled to stand forth legally, as he always has been morally, innocent. The decision carries with it restoration of military rank, though Dreyfus, we presume, will not care for that. Vindication is what he and his friends have asked all these weary and terrible years, and finally they have it complete. No formal redress is possible for the sufferings of the victim on Devil's Island, or for the ferocious ostracism to which he has been so long subjected, but his name and fame are forever cleared, and that is the great result which the heroic men—Reinach, Zola, Col. Picquart, and the others—who identified themselves with Dreyfus's case all along sought. France used to resent the intense interest of other nations in this celebrated case; but she will not spurn the congratulations of the world on the fact that her courts have known how to make justice shine forth as the noonday.

An income tax in France, which was voted last Friday by the Chamber after the Minister of Finance had declared that otherwise he would resign, was advocated as an absolute necessity. The fiscal year ended with a large deficit—no less than $75,000,000. While that has to be provided for, the budget for 1907 carries, nevertheless, increased expenses of some $60,000,000—bringing the total for the first time above the $800,000,000 mark. Such augmented expenditures M. Poincaré asserted to be "inevitable," and our own melancholy experience does not allow us to say him nay. But if outlay cannot come down, receipts must go up. Hence the income tax. It had not been imposed in France since the years after the war with Germany, when the milliards of indemnity had to be paid. Then it was spoken of as a merely "temporary" tax, which after its immediate purpose was served, would not be resorted to, except as a resource in time of war. But here it comes *en pleine paix.* Such are the demands which modern democracy is everywhere making upon the purse of the nation. There is, at any rate, this advantage about an income tax, as compared with the concealed operation of tariff taxes, that it enables people to see clearly who have to put the money into the purse.

The English "suffragettes"—as they are jestingly called—are going at it in earnest. Nearly every day brings news of a fresh demonstration of their desire for the ballot. Lady Frances Balfour, who believes in quiet and orderly campaigning, and Miss Billington, who leads the violent faction, alike feel themselves the victims of a grave injustice, and they are determined that this Parliament shall not expire without voting on the question. They have much to encourage them. On May 19, the Prime Minister received an impressive suffrage delegation and, though giving no pledge of action by his Government, avowed his sympathy with their cause. No English statesman ever went so far. The fact is that English politicians, though they may deprecate the movement, have themselves encouraged their sisters to enter political fields. It was Lord Randolph Churchill who organized them in the Primrose League, and in every subsequent election women have played a prominent part, not only in canvassing, but upon the platform. Their aid is now regularly sought by both parties. Naturally, they who are urged to make others vote demand the ballot for themselves. Moreover, English workingwomen have been drawn into the cause to a surprising degree. Unorganized and often underpaid, these women believe that their hard lot would be improved if they could but impress politicians by their votes. The Liberal press is sympathetic enough to give the "suffragettes" all the space they ask. The contrast between the status of the movement in this country and in England is obvious. Here few men in our national political life have professed sympathy for the cause, and fewer could be got to attend a meeting to urge it.

The suicide of an English barmaid, eighteen years of age, because she had fallen a victim to the drink habit, has once more deeply stirred the conscience of England. The incident may lead to legislation similar to the Glasgow ordinance forbidding the employment of girls as barmaids. To Americans the idea of a woman's serving as bartender is revolutionary, if not revolting. The English public-house of the better class is, however, in many respects so superior to our saloon that this employment has for centuries been monopolized by women. Not until recent years has there been a systematic effort to exclude girls from this trade. The Church of England Temperance Association and the British Women's Temperance Society have been agitating the subject; and a voluntary "Joint Committee on the Employment of Barmaids" has published a number of reports embodying the results of careful investigation. These prove beyond doubt that, even under the most favorable condi-

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tions, this employment is degrading. According to the Joint Committee's latest pamphlet, there were 27,700 barmaids in 1901, of whom 6,225 were under the age of 20, and 12,023 were between the ages of 20 and 25. The business requires youthful and attractive victims, for their good looks are expected to bring in much custom. Hence there are few barmaids over 35. The bar hours are abominably long, and in themselves would wreck the health of the women. Public houses in the London Metropolitan District are open no less than 19½ hours on week days; and in many resorts the barmaid is expected to be on hand practically from the opening until closing, save for a couple of hours for rest and meal time. The consequent fatigue is most readily combated by recourse to stimulants. An expert witness quoted by the Joint Committee stated that "75 per cent. of the barmaids are intemperate." Immorality is an almost necessary consequence, particularly as a woman who has been employed in a public-house finds it generally impossible to obtain respectable work elsewhere. Indeed, so overwhelming is the indictment of the calling as to make it incredible that reputable English newspapers should still defend it.

Ouida is begging the headmaster of Eton not to allow his pupils to indulge in the "unsupportably brutal" pastime of hunting hares. The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals is asking in England for an Animal Sunday, after the fashion of Hospital Sunday. The hope is to secure public instruction in our duty to dumb creatures. The consideration now shown for the feelings of the lower animals is the result of long and slow moral progress. Schopenhauer bitterly reproached both Judaism and Christianity for their shortcomings in this respect. It must be admitted that the earlier Christian ethics neglected the whole subject. A great gulf was supposed to separate the heaven-born soul of man and the blind instinct of the brute. But there has been improvement, however gradual. Certain sports which afforded amusement to our ancestors, such as dog fights and cock fights, as well as the baiting of bears and bulls, are becoming rare. The clay pigeon has been widely substituted for the live bird. Cattle on their way to the slaughter must be transported without cruelty. The galled back of the horse, the broken leg of the dog, and even the hunger of the cat are no longer *minima* of which it can be said that the law is heedless. This increased sensitiveness of the public conscience is part of the general humanitarian movement which marks this era. The theory of evolution also has indirectly been a corrective of the ideas of man's irresponsibility to the lower organisms. The demonstration of the unity of the whole organic world has made men understand as never before their real affinity with every living thing. Certain hunters, after killing monkeys, have felt themselves to be but little better than murderers. There is, however, still a considerable field for reform in the treatment of the lower animals.

One development of English railroading is as well worth attention as the Salisbury catastrophe. What is known as the "day cheap trip" is more popular than ever, and the railway companies are competing for the patronage of the great public that likes to travel a long distance for a comparatively small sum. The Great Western Railway, for instance, issues return tickets between London and Weston-super-Mare (113 miles) for one dollar, and carries passengers each way in about two hours without a stop. Places like Brighton, Margate, Hastings, Skegness, Yarmouth, Blackpool, Southport, and Morecambe are visited every day by thousands of people who have been conveyed from city to sea in well-appointed trains at low rates; indeed, Blackpool, by far the most popular seaside resort in Great Britain, depends very largely upon the "cheap-tripper." On the last Saturday in April 60,000 people journeyed from Lancashire and the Newcastle district to London to see a football match, at return fares ranging from 10 to 15 shillings. An excursion of this kind means two nights in the train and about eighteen hours of sightseeing. But the cheap-tripper has a tendency to favor excursions which entail a tax upon the powers of endurance. Not long ago 700 workingmen of Burnley participated in a "day-trip" to Paris. During the forty-three hours they were away from home, they travelled a thousand miles by land and sea, kept continually moving while in the French capital, and paraded four deep before the President. And these noble 700 have the satisfaction of knowing that for the rest of their days they will be regarded by friends and acquaintances as men who have seen "foreign parts."

An antiquated method of building up an institution of higher learning is described in the recently published life of Augustus Austen Leigh, late provost of King's College, Cambridge. Forty years ago King's, though wealthy and possessed of fine buildings, was, as one writer describes it, "not only ineffective, but notoriously useless." The lives led by some of its members were "vacuous and indolent, even, in certain cases, grossly scandalous." To-day, on the other hand, King's is "one of the most active intellectual bodies in the Kingdom." This change was due to Provost Leigh, and yet he instituted no drastic or stringent reforms. He had no novel educational programme. He disliked public appearances, and made no reputation either as a writer or a speaker. He was as far as possible from the type of educational hustler and advertiser, now in demand for the presidency of an American college. He seems to have been ignorant of our theory that peripatetic glee clubs and victorious athletic teams are the twin props of a university. With a simplicity that is almost pathetic he bent his whole energy to making the teaching force as efficient as possible, to developing the intellectual resources of King's. Quietly he took one department after another and strengthened it. He kept his eyes fixed on his goal; he was never in a hurry; never lost courage; was never impatient. We do not mean to say that "Steady and sure" would be equally useful in an American college of the twentieth century. That motto, however, has been President Eliot's, and he is thought to have had some success at Harvard.

Amateur golf has apparently sustained its reputation for producing something like a miracle each year, in the defeat of Champion Egan in the second round of the tournament just closed. But the surprise was not so great as it might seem. Experts have commonly said that when Egan had to appear on links where he must play straight, he would be beaten easily. He has been the type of the brilliant but erratic player, with a very long ball too subject to slicing or pulling, though usually with an astonishing power of recovery from the resulting bad lies. But the better golf courses are, to-day being steadily constructed so as to punish severely that style of execution. Side traps and pits, with the rough grass narrowing in, have put a premium upon straight and steady playing, which is as great as the penalty visited upon the golfer with tremendous distance but poor direction. Doubtless, the thing is sometimes overdone. On some links the hazards lie too thick. A really good ball may be unjustly penalized. That is said to have been the case here and there at Englewood. But the general tendency is wholesome. It is as marked abroad as it is here—though even of the new St. Andrews some complain that it has been made too hard. Yet it is well, on the whole, to make the golfer's salvation lie through the strait gate. The result of the tournament, by which Mr. Byers barely kept the championship from going to Mr. Lyon, the Canadian, was regarded as a crowning mercy by orthodox golfers—not because Mr. Lyon was a foreigner, but because his formidable game violated nearly all the approved maxims.

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PRIMARY LAWS AND PARTY TACTICS.

This year sees the first real trials of the direct primary on a wide scale, and in States where the parties are somewhat evenly balanced. Oregon made direct nominations this spring for all offices, including United States Senators; and the election for State officers and Congressmen was held in June. The Michigan Democrats have nominated their candidate for the Governorship by direct vote. In September, Wisconsin is, for the first time, to try its nominations law, one of the three most complete in the country, in nominating State officers; while under the new Illinois law, primaries are to be held for every office, including the United States Senatorship. In Iowa and New Jersey, which have the legalized but not the direct primary, contests are in progress upon such definite lines that the conventions will merely record the will of the voters as expressed on primary day.

Now that the politicians in so many Northern States are compelled to conduct campaigns under the new system, they are already forced to considerable modifications of the old strategy. Direct nominations obviously eliminate such devices as stampeding a convention, trumping up contests for seats, and the cruder dickering and trading of votes. According to the experience of cities which have used it, the direct primary also doubles, trebles, or quadruples the number of voters who participate in the making of nominations, a result which alone would offset most of the faults charged against the new system.

But besides these there are considerations of major tactics. One of the commonest methods of defeating a strong candidate for nomination has always been to put up against him a group of candidates, each drawing votes through his local popularity, so that the first ballot in convention will fail of a choice. Then the opponents of the leading candidate combine on one man, and the thing is done. That was the scheme employed in the effort to beat Folk in Missouri. The president of the Jefferson Club in St. Louis, the popular Mayor of Kansas City, and a Supreme Court judge with a war record made their campaigns separately, expecting to find their aggregate vote larger than Folk's; but they were disappointed. In the same way the movement against Chairman Babcock of the Republican Congressional Committee employed a different candidate against him from every county. This method of fighting is now outlawed by a more effective decree than any Hague conference would make. A faction is compelled to vote in the primary for the man it wants to nominate and elect. A candidate who has a third of the votes to start with cannot be beaten by dividing the remainder among three rivals. This makes for frankness and honesty; for "piecemeal" campaigning is never inspiring.

On the other hand, the direct primary tends to discourage independent candidates with small following. If many of them appear in the field, the votes are so scattered that the primary does not voice clearly the sentiment of the party. Thus there may be necessity for a preliminary agreement on candidates, or some means of setting aside plurality nominations. Some of the existing laws require the calling of a delegate convention when no candidate in the primary has a majority. The plan by which voters indicate their second choice, though defeated in Wisconsin last year, seems a fairer and more logical way of surmounting the same difficulty. No primary law now in force, however, has this feature.

Meanwhile, where anything at all besides personalities is at stake, a makeshift solution has to be found in the elimination of distracting candidates. If, for instance, the old "Stalwart" faction proved formidable in Wisconsin this year, it might win unless the opposing "Half-breeds" could concentrate their whole strength upon one or two candidates; that is, persuade all others to withdraw. In the South, except when, as in the current Georgia campaign, there is a clear field and no candidate for reëlection, "two-cornered" primaries are decidedly the rule. Senators and Representatives, especially, seem to hold their official honors like so many athletic championships, and aspirants challenge them single-handed, as Hobson did Bankhead, or Gov. Taylor Senator Carmack of Tennessee. Where the fight is over a definite issue, under the direct primary, it is especially necessary that each side choose its man before the fray begins.

That is the chief reason for the peculiar sort of pre-primary conventions which are being developed. The Wisconsin Democrats, for instance, held a State convention last month. This was not to nominate candidates; and even the platform in that State is, under the law, to be formulated by the candidates themselves, It resembled rather a general rally. "It is conceded," says one report in a Republican paper, "that the Democrats have secured an initial advantage by having come together and discussed the issues and the conditions which prevail throughout the State, and received that impetus to work for the party which comes from meeting each other in convention." The direct-primary States are likely to hear a good deal of this last point.

Perhaps it is not fair to say that the direct primary weakens party allegiance. But it has come at a time when appeals to "regularity" as an end in itself are losing much of their effect. There is no visible danger to the party organizations, but they are already facing a change in the basis on which they must be maintained.

DEALING WITH THE TURK.

One almost regrets that the Administration will not, after all, make the Sultan receive an American Ambassador at the point of the bayonet. The first announcement was that the President would stand no nonsense from the Sultan, but that, having got Congress to pass a law raising the legation at Constantinople to the rank of an embassy, he would proceed to insist upon Minister Leishman's reception as an Ambassador, if it took a squadron to do it. This opened up the prospect that a new chapter would be written in international law, showing that the aim of modern diplomacy is to keep as representative near other sovereigns, not a *persona grata*, but a *persona invitissima*. The State Department, however, has given that story its quietus, tamely acquiescing in the old view that diplomatic relations are for common agreement between nations, that it takes two to make an Ambassador, and that, in this matter, the White House must wait on the pleasure of the Yildiz Kiosk.

There is something a little innocent in the idea that we could transact our business with the Turk much better if we could only persuade him to receive an Ambassador. The reason given is, of course, that a mere Minister has to cool his heels in an ante-room, while Ambassadors claim precedence and pass in first to the awful presence. But the real question is how they fare when they get in. Great Britain and the chief Continental countries have Ambassadors at Constantinople, yet we do not observe that their complaints about the slipperiness and dilatoriness of Abdul Hamid are any fainter than our own. The recent ultimatum sent to Turkey by Great Britain, over the occupation of Tabah, could just as well have been delivered by a Minister, or even a messenger. A Sultan who is determined to refuse satisfaction and to put off every decision to the last day possible, will find excuses even when face to face with an Ambassador. And if it is a question of browbeating him, there is the example of our own Minister Terrell to show what heroic things can be done by a determined man without ambassadorial rank. He stood boldly up in the palace, in 1895, when checked by some minion of a Pasha, and said, "Go tell your royal master that I have come in the name of 70,000,000 American sovereigns to say to him that he must save his country from the devil, or it will be bad for Turkey."

Our own claims, which the Sultan has so long adjourned, relate chiefly to in-

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domnities for missionary property destroyed by mobs. But he is treating our appeals for money just as he does every one's. For at least a hundred years the Turkish Treasury has not yielded a piastre except on compulsion. The army is not paid, contractors do not get their funds, even full interest on the foreign debt is not forthcoming until every shift and pretence in order to secure delay have been exhausted. Our plight is not singular; and, as we say, it would be strange indeed if the Sultan's consenting to receive an Ambassador would bring his evasions and pretexts to an end, and put us on a better footing than other nations.

Some of the recent difficulties in dealing with the Turk were brought out strikingly in a debate the other day in the House of Lords. The joint financial control of Macedonia is not working well. This was forced upon Turkey by the Powers, it will be remembered, only after a naval demonstration had overawed the Sultan. But it is one thing to get the Turks to assent to a programme, quite another to induce them to carry it out honestly. Lord Newton read out a letter which he had received from an exceptionally well-informed resident of Macedonia. In it occurred this passage:

> Things are not going on well. There is going to be a suspension of payment tomorrow. General de Giorgis can get nothing done. I do not think we shall have any general rising this year, but it is inevitable later on, and I cannot but think that the sooner it comes the better it will be for all parties. At present people are being killed uselessly at the rate of 200 a month, and good honest war would be far less demoralizing.

This deficit in the Macedonian budget is craftily made use of by the Turkish officials to propose an increase in customs duties. As Lord Fitzmaurice, speaking for the Government, pointed out, "there was no reason to be astonished that the trained diplomatists of the Ottoman Empire, when called upon to introduce reforms into Macedonia, took the opportunity of telling the Foreign Office how very desirable it would be to let them have a little more money." The Turks have a seemingly good case. If the intervention of the Powers has cut off part of their Macedonian revenues, there is nothing for it but to levy higher rates on the goods which the Powers export to Turkey. Hence the desired advance of the Turkish customs. It is expected to raise an additional $3,750,000 for the Turkish Government. Of this, 35 per cent. would, under international agreement, have to go to bondholders; but there is objection to letting Turkey use up even the rest. Turkish finance is a confused mess at best, and the Powers are insisting that if any new sum is available, it should be devoted to settling arrears. Besides, as was openly said in Parliament, "if the Turks once tasted the joy of an 8 per cent. tariff, they would not relinquish it except under extreme pressure." So England and Austria and Germany are protesting and negotiating and feeling their way; and the fact that they have Ambassadors at Constantinople does not appear to be a solution of their difficulties.

THE MATTER WITH WALL STREET.

That Wall Street is ill—or, at least, complaining of being "all run down"—has been evident for some weeks. Its disease, whatever it may be, is all the more cruel because so mysterious. Wall Street feels that it ought to be in blooming health. Instead of the depressed sensation which it has so frequently suffered of late, it believes that it ought to be buoyant and overflowing with vigor. Nearly every business sign is not merely good, but excellent. General trade is flourishing. Railroad earnings are large. The promise of good crops at high prices is flattering. Under such conditions, the Wall Street barometer ought surely to be set "fair," instead of falling so frequently and alarmingly to "storm."

The puzzling nature of the Stock Exchange ailment has, of course, furnished a glorious opportunity to the financial doctors. They have gathered about the patient bent on making the true diagnosis. But *quot medici, tot sententiæ*. There are many violent opinions, but no agreement. Among the Wall Street physicians who are always looking for a god from the machine there is, however, a consensus that, whatever else may have contributed to depress stocks, the chief trouble is too much Roosevelt. Many bankers, brokers, and promoters are bitter toward the "rash and meddlesome" President, who has "killed the market." For this common opinion of Wall Street the compilers of financial statistics can make out a *prima facie* argument in the familiar *post hoc ergo propter hoc* style. Here is a table showing what has happened to typical standard securities and also speculative stocks since the President sent in his message about the beef business on June 4; it may be noted that the market has rallied somewhat this week:

	June 4.	July 18.	
Great Northern	307½	288	—19½
Reading	143½	119¾	—23¾
New York Central.....	141	131	—10
Pennsylvania	133⅝	125¼	— 8⅜
Union Pacific	152⅛	143⅛	— 9
St. Paul	174¾	175¼	+ ½
U. S. Steel	41½	34¼	— 7¼
U. S. Steel preferred...	106⅜	101⅜	— 5
Amalgamated	109⅜	96	—13⅜
Brooklyn Rapid Transit.	84⅞	72¼	—12⅝
American Smelting	157⅛	143½	—13⅝

A downward lurch also dated from June 25, just after the President had announced his intention to prosecute the Standard Oil Company, and possibly the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. This incident brings in a variant of the theory of Mr. Roosevelt's responsibility as a disturber of traffic. It is that the incensed "Standard Oil crowd" and angry railway interests went into the market to slaughter stocks (including their own) in order to "teach the President a lesson." It is, of course, further proof of the diseased condition of Wall Street's mind that it could believe this. No doubt that the Standard folk would like to undertake Mr. Roosevelt's education, but we can scarcely imagine them eager to pay out of their own pocket his school bills running into scores of millions. Still, there is the tell-tale table, of the most deadly before-and-after kind; and how, in the face of the damning figures, can any man with half an eye deny that the President is guilty?

Indubitably, the President's course, like any other event causing disquiet and apprehension, would tend to deflate a highly blown market. If prices were kept up by reckless speculation six weeks ago, the shock given by Mr. Roosevelt may have been the signal to set them tumbling, though the really efficient causes were many, complex, and partly hidden. And there is, we think, good evidence that speculative manipulation of the market had been too venturesome. It did not reckon with Mr. Roosevelt, to be sure, and is still assigning the fact that "no one can tell what that man will do next" as the vexatious cause of financial depression; but neither did it reckon with other forces which it ought to have taken into account. It was going blithely upon the assumption that money would continue easy, although there were many signs of a coming stringency. New York does not appear to have been so alert as Paris and Berlin and London to the immense financial significance of the Russian revolution—for such, as Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu truly asserts, we must now call it. That cloud on the market was a plain warning to be cautious, but our speculators were jauntily daring. They did not perceive the lesson of the fact that American railroad loans had to be placed abroad, or detect the peril of the real-estate speculation that has mounted to such heights in so many parts of the country. In the face of such clear danger-signals, portending high rates for money, the Wall Street "boom" went merrily on until the demonstration suddenly came that it was hollow. President Roosevelt may or may not have been the immediate cause of revealing the real state of things. If it had not been he, some one else, or some event, would soon have done the work; for the true causes were all the while operative, and the result was bound to follow.

We may wisely distrust the man who confidently offers us a single skeleton key to fit the complicated wards of the financial lock. Large and continuing effects imply general causes. The present cry of Pittsburgh, "Roosevelt is killing

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prosperity," sounds more of pettishness than philosophy. In a broad way, this country is suffering financially from thinking to eat its cake and have it, too. The idea has been to screw up wages, prices, profits, all around; to set and keep up a luxurious standard of expenditure; to despise saving and small but sure gains, and to use up our capital faster than it accumulates. If that is folly in an individual, it cannot be wisdom in a whole people. In the end, the spendthrift has to apply to the prudent, as the lavish American is now applying to the thrifty Frenchman.

A SUCCESSFUL PROFESSIONAL CAREER.

"Walter Reed and Yellow Fever" is the title of a book in which Dr. Howard A. Kelly of Johns Hopkins tells the story of a successful professional career. Success in this case, as every one knows, did not consist in building up a large, fashionable, and lucrative private practice; in conducting a popular sanitarium, or in being able to charge enormous fees for surgical operations. Doctors who achieve these ends are commonly pointed out as having won the prizes in medicine; but there is another point of view. Dr. Reed spent eighteen years as an army surgeon in garrison—most of the time in the Far West. When he died at the age of fifty-one his annual pay was less than $3,000; and his last hours were haunted by the fear that his family was ill-provided for. Yet his life throughout was happy and useful, and crowned at the end with brilliant achievement.

Dr. Kelly's narrative is of deep interest to both physician and layman. Walter Reed was born in Virginia in 1851; and at the age of eighteen he graduated from the Medical School of the University of Virginia. For the next six years he was attached to various hospitals in New York; in 1875 he obtained a position in the Medical Corps of the army, and in the following May he went to Fort Lowell, Arizona; later he was at Camp Apache, seven hundred miles from a railway. The hardships which he and his wife endured are the subject of many graphic pages. Generally he was the only physician at the station, and he was called upon by the settlers for miles around. At one period, when he himself was ill with fever, he insisted on responding to any urgent call. For lack of strength he would be repeatedly forced to sit down while dressing, and finally he would start out "with the snow deep on the ground and the thermometer far below zero." "The more humble the patient," says his biographer, "the greater his devotion." He was especially attached to children. Once he brought into camp a little Indian girl so terribly burned that her people had left her to die. He succeeded in saving her, and brought her up in his own family as nurse to his children.

After thirteen years of Western life came his opportunity. Feeling that he needed time for more study, he obtained appointment as attending surgeon and examiner of recruits in Baltimore, with permission to pursue professional work at the Johns Hopkins Hospital. There he gave himself mainly to pathology and bacteriology, in which he showed marked promise. From 1891 to 1893 he was again in the West; then he was made curator of the Army Medical Museum and professor of bacteriology and clinical microscopy in the Army Medical School. He now began his career as a scientific man. He studied diphtheria, and did everything in his power to advance the use of antitoxin as a remedy. When typhoid broke out among the soldiers at the time of the Spanish war, he was made chairman of a committee to investigate the epidemics. The committee report, in two large volumes, is described by Dr. Kelly as "a monumental work, which will always be of value as a basis of future study in the epidemiology of typhoid fever."

As early as 1897 he had paid some attention to yellow fever. When in 1900 the disease appeared among our soldiers at Havana, Dr. Reed was appointed chairman of a commission to study this plague of the tropics and semi-tropics. Various theories had been propounded as to the cause of infection: that the fever tainted the air, or that it was conveyed by contact with a patient or with his clothing. Dr. Carlos J. Finlay of Havana believed that the mosquito carried the germs; but he had been unable to offer convincing proof. The labor of Dr. Reed and his commission we cannot here take up in detail; but we must at least mention the heroism of those soldiers and physicians who volunteered for inoculation by the bite of a mosquito. Dr. Jesse William Lazear, "with more than the courage and devotion of a soldier, risked and lost his life." All the members of the commission were in constant peril. Finally, they made clear beyond cavil the fact that the mosquito *C. fasciatus* is the intermediate host for the parasite of yellow fever. Dr. Reed's exultation as he saw his experiments drawing to a triumphant conclusion is revealed in several letters to his wife. Once he says: "I could shout for very joy that Heaven has permitted me to establish this wonderful way of propagating yellow fever." A few weeks later he writes:

> The prayer that has been mine for twenty years, that I might be permitted in some way or at some time to do something to alleviate human suffering, has been granted!

Dr. Reed, worn with toil, died in 1902 after an operation for appendicitis. That he had his recompense, rich and abundant, in this life, none can doubt. The joy of the scientist as he unveils even a relatively unimportant truth cannot be measured in terms of money, or what money will buy. Only those who have caught glimpses of the beatific vision can conceive the emotion of Dr. Reed at the thought that he had done more for medicine than any American has ever done; that he had stayed one of the most fearful of scourges, and saved countless lives. In a day when the allurements of commerce are more potent than ever before, its rewards huger and more dazzling, such a book as this should be put into the hands of aspiring youth. From it they will learn the difference between the shadows of the flesh and the realities of the spirit.

REMBRANDT AFTER THREE CENTURIES.

During his own life, Rembrandt's fame, once considerable, sank into obscurity. For a full century later he was almost forgotten. His was the fate of all artists at odds with their times. How this great visionary came to be the consummate master of the Dutch school, and withal the least Dutch of its masters, remains something of an enigma. On this point, the modern eulogists differ as widely as the older critics. He is lauded as a precursor of impressionism, as a profound portraitist, as the truest interpreter of Bible story, as the greatest of etchers, even as a masterful colorist. Some have boldly hailed him as the chief of naturalists. Many of these things Rembrandt was—so inclusive was his life work; all of them he might have been—so versatile and persistent was his genius. Painters, who are likely to be right in such matters, regard him as the inventor of a peculiarly rich and vibrant *chiaroscuro*, which became a remarkable medium of expression—hinting at the mystery of personality, and containing, as it were, all the springs of human pathos.

On the technical side Taine said the last word of Rembrandt's characteristic style—namely, "his figures swim in the air, like a fish in the water"; or, again, "the atmosphere is the principal personage of the picture." Such statements should be accepted with a difference; they do emphatically point the truth that every late canvas of the master is a battlefield, in which the shadow surges up to the tiny citadel held by the high light, which in turn resists the gloom and struggles outwards through the deepest shadows, being always conqueror in the end. Similarly his figures do not assert themselves brusquely and once for all in fixed contours, but grow out of the darkness as a kind of emanation. The eye never completely ascertains them, but reveals them increasingly, as forms are divined at twilight. Nothing seems set and arranged for the convenience of the onlooker, of whom

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is required something of the visionary quality of the artist. With considerable technical differences, Whistler and Carrière have sought the same effect of an evasive reality.

It is important to note that the mystery of Rembrandt, his effacement of the line and simplification of the masses, is based on a perfect knowledge of the actual forms. One has only to compare the early "Anatomy Lesson" with the later "Syndics" to perceive that the contrast is not between representing forms and neglecting them, but between two kinds of representation, of which the later is both the more difficult and the more accurate. The clinic of Dr. Tulp is painted with a solidity and relief almost scriptural, suggesting, in fact, the touch of the finger rather than the observation of the eye. Each head is painted as if seen by itself; there is no charm of color; the merit lies in superb academic draughtsmanship, in grasp of character, and, negatively, in suppression of the more revolting features of the subject. In such a picture Rembrandt appears as cautious and laborious, a formidable rival to the Van der Heists and other "corporation" painters, but essentially of their sort, after all. In the "Syndics," painted at the end of his career, there is greater actuality and unity—the glamour and mystery in which these grave committeemen are invested strangely contributing to the sense that these are substantial presences. In short, following the almost universal course of successful genius, Rembrandt prevailed by means of a conscientious academic tutelage, the minute method of which he finally abandoned. He is successful in putting his own passionate vision of the world upon canvas, because first he has mastered the dry record of the average eye.

In Rembrandt's etchings—the peddling of which kept him afloat through disastrous years—the real Rembrandt, the Rembrandt of mystery and of the searching, yet fluttering eye, appears much earlier than in the paintings. The etched line indicates the whole character of the pose, the suffusion of the figure with light, the tremor that indicates motion incipient or just arrested. A very little study of the etchings will show how early Rembrandt came to that curiously profound and troubled vision by which we know him best. The fact suggests that his earlier and dryer portraits represent, as one might suppose, less his natural predilection than a conscious apprenticeship to the distasteful but indispensable severities of his art.

If criticism of Rembrandt's finished art has erred seriously, it is in claiming for his use of light and shade and air a ground in realism. As a matter of fact, it would be hard to imagine a more abstract means of expression. Critics seek rather idly the basis of his golden shadows in the half-light of his home. What such an interior was like we know very accurately from the picture of De Hoogh; but Rembrandt deals in light and shade that never were except in his own imagination. He pays the slightest attention to times of day and to all problems in specific lighting, choosing merely the illumination that best conveys his mood. Thus he has little to do with the modern luminists. His irradiated shadow is a glamour that his brooding spirit imposes upon the world. For this reason he is an unsafe model, as was shown by the artistic shipwreck of most of his scholars and imitators. He invented his half light only that he might people that golden "darkness visible" with types of human tenderness and pathos.

No one so well as he has realized the universal humanity of the Bible narrative—its direct appeal to the heart. How understandingly he has stripped these scenes of all hieratic associations, of all merely learned or traditional sophistications! "Christ Before the Doctors," "The Raising of Lazarus," "Abraham and Isaac," "The Flight into Egypt"—these are representative of the subjects he has treated in all simplicity. As no other artist, he has grasped the beauty of the homely Protestant conception of the Bible. Rembrandt some way managed to walk with God's folk of old in humble and friendly fashion. They were his neighbors and real visitants, and with them he used a frankness in striking contrast to the caprice that made him travesty himself and his bodily sitters in all manner of studio trappings. In short, when we speak of realism in Rembrandt, we mean simply his sincerity of emotion—his peculiar meditative pathos. His portraits, for example, as compared with those of Titian, of Hals, or better, of Velasquez, are highly unreal and conventional, but it is a convention that expresses admirably the penetrative insight and broad sympathy of the painter-poet of Amsterdam. The realist sets a person in a canvas; Rembrandt fills a canvas with a personality.

No school and no nation may fairly claim Rembrandt. He deliberately forewent the sober excellence of color and solidity of design that make the Dutch school great. With small pride as an inventor of methods, he elaborated a procedure that no one has imitated with safety. Unriddling the mystery of light and shade, he forbore to complete his discovery, utilizing it only so far as it served his limited pictorial message; with a remarkable sense of the value of color, he used it only as a casual grace to enliven his monochrome. At every point one perceives the sacrifice of artistic breadth to profundity. Rembrandt is the most solitary figure in art, for, apparently, no sense of superiority or pride of artistry sustained him; yet this isolated figure brings to human emotions the just and all-embracing sympathy of a little child.

The sun shines upon the just and unjust, and so the illuminated dusk of Rembrandt embraces without discrimination the beautiful and the unbeautiful. It is, in fact, the beauty of the picture, and the form is largely incidental—a mere centre of coruscation. Nothing more clearly marks him off from the classical tradition than his refusal to impute a beauty that does not lie in the subject. By what seems a kind of good luck, he has painted a few pictures of a peculiarly living and tremulous grace. One recalls the little Susannah of the Louvre, or, better, the "Finding of Moses," now in the collection of J. G. Johnson of Philadelphia—a picture that, with greater seriousness, has the romantic elegance of a Watteau. Such rare examples show that Rembrandt was great, not merely in his achievements, but in his renunciations.

REMBRANDT EXHIBITION AT WASHINGTON.

WASHINGTON, July 16.

A Rembrandt exhibition opened in the Congressional Library yesterday, in commemoration of the tercentenary of the birth of the artist. Through the efforts of Arthur Jeffrey Parsons, chief of the Division of Prints in the library, and also a trustee of the Corcoran Gallery, a representative collection of Rembrandt prints has been gathered and will remain on exhibition in the Hall of Arts throughout this year. There are 550 prints in all. They come from various sources: from the T. Harrison Garrett collection of Baltimore, which, in its entirety of 20,000 prints, has been deposited in the Library of Congress as a loan; the Gardner G. Hubbard collection of Washington, a gift to the library; the George Lathrop Bradley collection of Washington, a loan to the library; and from the general collection owned by the library, obtained largely through the purchase of the George P. Marsh collection. it is interesting to note that the T. Harrison Garrett collection owes its existence to-day to the fact that it was deposited in the library. The Sunday after the prints had been shipped here, the great Baltimore fire destroyed the building in which this collection had been stored.

The hall is well lighted, and admirably suited to an exhibition of this kind. Three hundred and one of the prints are etchings, 154 are reproductions of paintings, and 95 are drawings and sketches. When it is recalled that the greatest number of Rembrandt plates which have been admitted by any critic is 375, the number admitted by Rovenski in 1890, and the smallest number 329, which was declared by Middleton, in 1878, to include all of the Rembrandt plates so far as he had been able to identify them, the representative character of this exhibit will be appreciated. Only a few copies are included among the etchings,

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and these for the purpose of completing the several states of the plates.

In arranging this exhibit Mr. Parsons has followed Rovenski's classification, which begins with Rembrandt's portraits of himself. These are exhibited in a glass case to the left as one enters the hall. Passing from these portraits, which some will think the most interesting group of all, the visitor finds, in the following order, that used by Rovenski, the works of Rembrandt according to subjects: (2) Old Testament, (3) New Testament, (4) saints, (5) allegorical, historical, etc., (6) beggars or mendicants, (7) figures, (8) landscape, (9) portraits of men, (10) heads of men, (11) portraits of women, (12) head studies. Groups two and three, pictures inspired by the Old and New Testaments, are among the largest in the collection. Midway in the Hall of Arts is a case containing that foremost of all his etchings, "Christ Healing the Sick," called the "Hundred Guilder Print." Of this etching there are prints of its several states. Nearby is the Abraham series of etchings: "Abraham sending away Hagar and Ishmael," "Abraham and his son Isaac," and the "Sacrifice of Abraham." Other famous etchings in this group of religious subjects are: "Christ Presented to the People," "Descent from the Cross," "Repose in Egypt," "Jesus Christ Preaching," "Ecce Homo," "Raising Lazarus," "Flight into Egypt," and the "Three Crosses." Rembrandt's portraits of men and of women, and his studies in heads complete the collection of etchings; and the groups are represented by many of the best etchings of each, as, for example, the portraits of "Renier Ansloo," "Jean Lutma," and the little and great Coppenois. The portraits of women include that entitled "Old Woman Sleeping," and several of Rembrandt's etchings of his mother.

A representative collection of engravings of Rembrandt's paintings occupies nearly a third of the space. Each card in this section gives the title of the painting, the collection in which it originally appeared, place of collection, date of painting, and reference to the Bode catalogue. Of the 154 paintings of which prints are here exhibited, 43 are not described in the catalogue of Bode. Here may be seen examples of nearly all of the engravers of Rembrandt's paintings, Dutch, German, English, French and American.

Of the two hundred and fifty paintings by Rembrandt now in existence, the cards prepared under the direction of Mr. Parsons tell us that some thirty are in art galleries and private collections in this country. The most notable Rembrandt collection in this country is probably that of Henry O. Havemeyer of New York, which includes "Portrait of a Gentleman," long known as "The Treasurer"; "Portrait of a Lady of the Van Beresteyn-Vucht Family"; "Portrait of a Gentleman" of the same family; "Portrait of the Gilder"; "Portrait of an Old Lady, looking to the left, her hands clasped"; "A Young Woman, resting her right hand with a fan on the back of a chair"; and a "Portrait of a Young Man in a high hat, his left hand on his breast." Other Rembrandts in New York, and the collections in which they appear, are: Metropolitan Museum, "A Pale Young Man, with long hair and a broad-brimmed hat, his left hand in his coat"; and "A Man in a broad-brimmed hat, with a dark beard"; T. J. Blakeslee, "The Sibyl"; James W. Ellsworth, "Portrait of a Man of Forty"; F. E. Fischof, "An Old Man with his throat uncovered"; George J. Gould, "A Study of an Old Man with a beard, in a red cap," and "The Standard Bearer with a red sash"; Robert Hoe, "A Young Girl"; collection of the late Joseph Jefferson, "Portrait of Petronella Buys"; Morris K. Jesup, "Portrait of a Young Man" and "Portrait of a Young Woman"; H. McK. Twombly, "The Noble Slav"; Richard Mortimer, "A Warrior putting on his armor;" Charles Stewart Smith, "St. John the Baptist"; H. L. Terrell, "Rembrandt with short hair in a feather cap"; Charles T. Yerkes's collection, "The Raising of Lazarus," "Portrait of an Officer," "A Rabbi in a White Cap," and "Jupiter and Mercury entertained by Philemon and Baucis."

BUILDING UP THE CANADIAN ARCHIVES.

OTTAWA, July 14.

In an unostentatious way, befitting the character of the work and the scholarly men who are engaged in it, the Canadian Archives are being developed into one of the most complete and, what is much more important, most accessible collections of historical manuscripts in America.

The history of the Canadian Archives does not go back many years. The first Dominion archivist, the late Dr. Douglas Brymner, was appointed in 1872, at the instance of a number of Canadians interested in historical research. Dr. Brymner took hold with enthusiasm of the work of gathering the scattered records of Canadian history, but the importance of his task and of the results was not appreciated by the political leaders of the day. He was consequently hampered by the meagreness of the appropriations annually voted by Parliament. The marvel is that, under such discouraging conditions, he accomplished so much. Francis Parkman, Dr. Coues, Dr. Kingsford, Justin Winsor, and other historians and students have borne witness to the value of the Canadian Archives and the industry of the late archivist.

Dr. Brymner devoted all his energies to gathering material. He was always haunted by the knowledge that historical documents, many of them indispensable to full knowledge of the facts of early Canadian and American history, were disappearing. This applied not merely to manuscripts in the hands of individuals, but even to those in the possession of foreign Governments. Dr. Richard, author of "Acadia," who was for some time assistant archivist, prepared ten years ago a calendar of manuscripts found by him in the various departments of the French Government, which he thought should be copied for the Canadian Archives. Owing to continued lack of funds, Dr. Brymner had to put off from year to year the copying of these documents; and when at last the work was taken in hand, it was found that, even within the decade, many important documents had disappeared. In one case the head of a department had cleaned out hundreds of valuable records, many of them bearing on the early history of this continent, to make room for his secretary; and the manuscripts were sold as waste paper.

With the knowledge before him of this steady wasting away of original documents, Dr. Brymner devoted all his time and energy to hunting up material, and securing for the archives either the originals or accurate copies. He possessed in an eminent degree that nose for the whereabouts of original documents so useful in an archivist; and he was constantly engaged in tracing clues and running down manuscripts in the most unlikely places. He had neither the time nor the assistance, nor perhaps even the inclination, for making the rapidly accumulating volumes of manuscript material readily accessible by means of indexes and other bibliographical appliances. While he lived, this lack was not seriously felt; for Dr. Brymner's knowledge was so minute and his memory so exact, that he could instantly find any document, and could generally refer to everything else he had on the same subject.

After the death of Dr. Brymner, chaos reigned for a time, until the Government in appointing Dr. Arthur Doughty of Quebec as his successor brought to the office one who combined Dr. Brymner's scholarship and talent for hunting down material, with organizing ability and a perception of the advantages of modern methods in cataloguing and indexing.

Under Dr. Doughty's hand, the Canadian Archives are rapidly taking a place beside the Archives of other lands. Through the sympathetic interest of the present Viceroy of India, Lord Minto, who at the time of Dr. Doughty's appointment was Governor-General of Canada, and of the Prime Minister, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Government was induced to provide adequate accommodation for the Archives. A suitable appropriation appeared in the estimates two years ago, and the Archives building is now nearing completion. It has been made as nearly fire-proof as possible. The book-cases, shelving, doors, and window-frames are of steel. It is even proposed to have tables and chairs of the same material. When the Archives have been moved into their new quarters, they will be as safe as human ingenuity can make them.

Steps have been taken to remove to the new building, not only the present collections of the Archives Branch, but also all the historical material now scattered through various departments of the Government. Some years ago a Royal Commission examined the records of all departments, and strongly recommended that everything of permanent value should be removed to the Archives. The Commission found valuable material the existence of which was unknown even to the officials of the departments concerned. From the Department of Militia and Defence is to be taken an immense mass of documents bearing on the Indian wars, the War of the Revolution, the War of 1812, the Fenian Raids, and the Red River Rebellions. From the Department of State comes the entire Branch of Public Records, including a vast accumulation of official and other documents bearing on the political history of Canada, back to the French Régime. From the Governor-General's Office have already been taken several hundred vol-

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umes of original dispatches of the Governors of Canada to the Colonial Office at London. Other equally precious matter will come from the Privy Council Office, the Library of Parliament, the Department of Justice, the Interior Department, and the Department of Indian Affairs.

Probably before the close of the present year, all this material, with the collections of the Archives, will be in the new building; and before the close of the following year the whole will be roughly classified and shelved. But this is merely preliminary. The Archivist will provide an adequate key to the documents in the form of a card index. The work is already well advanced on the original Archives, but the indexing staff will be busy for many years preparing the five or six million cards required for material already in sight, without counting future accessions. When the work is brought up to date, the Canadian Archives will be one of the most valuable, because most accessible, collections in the world. The new archivist has also made a beginning with a Bibliography of Canadian History, designed on a scale far in advance of anything now available. This will also be on cards, but when reasonably complete it will be published in one or more large volumes, to be followed at intervals by supplements.

Another undertaking is the preparation of a guide to historical manuscript material throughout Canada. Specialists are already engaged on this work in the various provinces, and from the notes so far received at Ottawa it is clear that the guide will be of great service. Manuscript material is scattered everywhere throughout the Dominion, in the Archives of the provincial Governments, in college and society libraries, and in the hands of individuals. The manuscripts in the libraries of Laval University, Quebec, and St. Mary's (Jesuit) College, Montreal, are so extensive that the librarians themselves have as yet only an approximate knowledge of their number and character. The old seigniorial families of the province of Quebec, and the old Acadian families in Nova Scotia, possess documents a knowledge of which might upset many conclusions of the historians. The recent organization of an Archives Department at Toronto, under the Provincial Government, has stimulated the interest in original documents in Ontario, and has relieved the Dominion Archives of much research so far as that province is concerned. By a system of cooperation the Provincial and Dominion archivists will each get the benefit of the other's labors. In connection with the guide to historical manuscript material, members of the Dominion Archives' staff are visiting the older churches of the country and the notarial offices in Quebec, and making exhaustive notes as to the scope of all the parish registers. More than one apparently hopeless tangle in early Canadian history has been straightened out, because some parish register showed that such a man appeared as godfather on a certain date, as witness on another, and so forth. The guide to historical manuscript material, like the bibliography of Canadian history, is eventually to be published by the Government in book form.

Meanwhile, the work of gathering material has not been lost sight of. One of Dr. Doughty's assistants is permanently stationed in London, and is engaged in systematic examination of records in Great Britain, France, and the other countries of Europe. A copyist is transcribing documents at Hudson's Bay House, in London, and material already sent over indicates that it may be necessary to rewrite much of the early history of Western Canada. Recently it has become known that many documents belonging to or bearing on the North West Fur Company of Canada are in one of the Government departments at St. Petersburg. How they got there Heaven only knows. Copies are to be made and sent to Ottawa. One of the most important of recent finds is the discovery in Paris of what seems to be conclusive proof of the authenticity of the discredited fourth voyage of Jacques Cartier; also a very early plan of Quebec.

This year's Archives report will not, as hitherto, be confined to one modest volume, but will fill three large volumes. Documents will be printed freely *in extenso*, including material on the constitutional history of Canada, as well as of hitherto unpublished, and indeed unknown, matter touching the Acadians. The report will also contain reproductions of several rare historical plates.

Correspondence.

RAILWAY CASUALTIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: From your remarks upon the lamentable railway accident at Salisbury, England, in your issue of July 5, it would seem that you regard the loss of life to passengers on English railways as rather greater, proportionately, than it is on railways in the United States; and you arrive at this conclusion by distributing the casualties over the railway mileage in each country, with the unquestionable result that in the United States ten times the number of stationary, horizontally laid rails appear to have been the death of only four or five times the number of passengers killed in England. But what has railway mileage to do with it? On the same principle it would be easy to prove the exceptional safety of any ill-built, ill-managed pioneer railway, with one passenger train a day each way and a smash-up once a month, as compared to an equal number of miles of the New York Central, in the immediate neighborhood of New York, with about a thousand times as much usage. Surely, the basis of a comparison of railway casualties ought to be the amount of traffic, not length of line. Passenger traffic on English railways is enormous, as compared with that in the United States, although the average distance over which each passenger is carried is probably not so great. Moreover, the density of the traffic, and therefore the risk of collisions, is much greater in England. I have not attempted to work out such a comparison for myself, but I find one already made in Hazell's Annual for 1906, which I beg to append. The statistics are for the year 1904:

	England.	U. S.
Passengers killed	115	411
Passengers injured	2,669	9,111

PROPORTION OF PASSENGERS KILLED AND INJURED TO PASSENGERS CARRIED.

	England.	United States.
Killed	1 in 199,758,000	1 in 1,622,267
Injured	1 in 2,244,472	1 in 78,523

The figures for the accidents to railway employees are even more impressive:

PROPORTION OF SERVANTS KILLED AND INJURED TO SERVANTS EMPLOYED.

	England.	United States.
Killed	1 in 10,144	1 in 357
Injured	1 in 747	1 in 19

H. H. LANGTON.

Toronto, July 10.

[These figures do not tell the whole story, inasmuch as they take no account of the average distance travelled by each passenger. The length of the trip is greater in the United States. Much of English railway travel is the London suburban traffic.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

The next volume to appear in the Highways and Byways series (Macmillan) will be that on "Dorset," by Sir Frederick Treves. The volume will be illustrated by Joseph Pennell.

Prof. Charlton M. Lewis of Yale will soon publish through Henry Holt & Co. "Principles of English Verse." Professor Lewis writes, he says, "chiefly for the general reader."

The Rev. Bridgeman Boughton-Leigh's "Memorials of a Warwickshire Family" will be published this month by Henry Frowde. Sir H. Gilzean-Reid contributes a prefatory note.

Under the title of "An Englishwoman in the Philippines," E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish shortly a book by Mrs. Campbell Dauncey. It is in the form of letters home, and it gives a view of life in the Philippines generally, and in Manila and Iloilo. Dutton also promises at an early date "Sidney Herbert: Lord Herbert of Lea," a memoir by Lord Stanmore, 2 vols.; "Personal Forces in Modern Literature," by Arthur Rickett; "From a Cornish Window," by "Q."; "Side Lights on the Home Rule Movement," by Sir Robert Anderson; "George Crabbe and His Times," by René Huchon; "A Week in Waterloo in June, 1815," by Lady De Lancey; "The House of Cobwebs," by George Gissing, and "The Quest of the Simple Life," by W. J. Dawson.

Geronimo, the Apache outlaw and chief, has spent the last two years in writing his autobiography, which is to be published by Duffield & Co. S. M. Barrett, superintendent of schools at Lawton, Okla., has been the medium through which the chief, now seventy-seven years of age, has told the story of his life and of his people.

Doubleday, Page & Co. believe in distributing their books through the year. They will soon have ready for publication "The Frog Book," an "authoritative" work on that subject by Mary C. Dickerson; "How to Make a Fruit Garden" and "Cotton," a "complete" book by Charles W. Burkett and Clarence H. Poe. A work of historical importance is "Recollections and Letters of George Washington," which gives a picture of the home life at Mt. Vernon and contains a number of unpublished letters from Washington to his confidential secretary, Tobias Lear.

Norman Duncan has just finished a sea-yarn for boys, "The Adventures of Billy

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Topsail," which will be published by the Revell Company this autumn. The same firm announces "The Undertow," by Robert E. Knowles; "On the Trail of the Immigrant," by Edward A. Steiner, and "The Doctor," by Charles W. Gordon, better known as "Ralph Connor."

Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons will begin in October the publication of *Putnam's Monthly*, a reissue of the magazine first published by the late George P. Putnam in 1853. With the new Putnam's will be incorporated the *Critic*, which has been issued by Putnam since 1898.

"Books and My Food" (Moffat, Yard & Co., $1 net) is a little volume of appropriate quotations and recipes for every day in the year, prepared by Elizabeth Luther Cary and Annie M. Jones. The quotations will be a godsend to the harassed makers of menus for public occasions, and the recipes look appetizing; but why should they be distributed singly under the days of the year?

"Spain and Her People" is the title of an illustrated book by Mr. J. Zimmerman, which T. Fisher Unwin has just issued in London. It opens with sketches of the sights of Spain—the Alhambra, Grenada, etc. Then follow chapters on Spanish Life and character, the Inquisition, the expulsion of the Jews, and the Moors. The final chapters deal with the causes of Spain's decline, and her future prospects.

"The Building of the Organ" and "Onward," two "symphonic poems," published two years ago, by the author, Nathan Haskell Dole, are now issued with the imprint of Moffat, Yard & Co.

The series of translations published by the Oxford University Press includes "Longinus on the Sublime," a work which has stood next to Aristotle's "Poetics" as the source of modern criticism; "a golden book," as old Isaac Casaubon called it. The depth, or, as one may say, centrality of its views may be understood from the fact that so classical a critic as Sir Joshua Reynolds had it constantly in mind while writing his "Discourses," and that so one-sided, if protesting, a romanticist as Professor Saintsbury accepts it as one of the bibles of criticism. The translation by A. O. Prickard is smoothly done. The Introduction gives the data which underlie the discussion of authorship and date, without attempting any dogmatic solution of that question, and the notes supply the information demanded by the non-classical reader. The little book is highly commendable.

A translation of Longinus was published in 1712 by Leonard Welsted, a versifier and critic whom Pope savagely attacked in the "Dunciad":

> Flow, Welsted, flow! like thine inspirer, beer;
> Tho' stale, not ripe; tho' thin, yet never clear.

These lines were a return for some of Welsted's strictures upon Pope. Welsted, possibly inspired by Longinus, seems to have been at odds with the school of Pope. Writing in 1724 he declared roundly that "a great part" of the contemporary English poets "have been imitators; another body of men, yet more numerous and more despicable than these, consists of such as have learnt from the rules the measure of a verse, and a few other things of not much more consequence; and certainly of all the causes that have helped to swell the throng of ill writers, none have more contributed to it than those essays on poetry before mentioned." This last clause is a direct slap at Pope's "Essay on Criticism." Further on Welsted talks of "mechanical poets." In fact, Welsted, however faulty his practice, professed some of the doctrines which later inspired the romantic movement.

It would not be easy to name a writer of English better fitted to reproduce the style of Anatole France than the late Lafcadio Hearn. How many readers of Hearn know that he made a translation of "The Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard" for Harper & Bros. as late as 1890? The volume is now reissued. Harpers also reprint James de Mille's "Cord and Creese." This novel by the author of the once famous "Dodge Club" was first published in 1869.

Funk & Wagnalls publish Taine's "Balzac, a Critical Study" ($1 net) in a translation by Lorenzo O'Rourke. A fresh impulse, no doubt, will be given to the criticism of Balzac by the work on that novelist by Mr. Brunetière which will soon be added to Lippincott's French Men of Letters, and this English version of Taine's appreciation is thus well-timed.

"The Scottish School of Painting" can hardly be said to have convinced the world of its separate existence, but in his book of that title in "The Library of Art" (Duckworth-Scribner, $2 net) William D. McKay has succeeded in demonstrating that painting in Scotland, or in England by Scotchmen, has had, since the day of Raeburn and Wilkie, certain national characteristics which fairly entitle it to the name. None of the members of the school have equalled in eminence the founders of it, but it is impressive to find how many of the leading painters of Britain have come from the northern end of the island. The author is a "professional painter" who writes with knowledge and confidence of technical matters, and the volume is fairly illustrated.

We may mention here two useful books published by Wiley & Sons on a subject attracting continually more attention in this country. In his "Garbage Crematories in America" William Mayo Venable gives the design of every type of crematory built in the United States. And there is a large amount of discussion of matters connected with garbage or refuse disposal which should be of value to those interested in this work. "The Disposal of Municipal Refuse," by H de B. Parsons, is the result of observations while engaged in making designs for the disposition of some of the New York city refuse. The book is mainly devoted to the characteristics of the material collected in New York, the uses to which it may be put, and the principles underlying its sanitary and economic handling.

Professor Jastrow has chosen an interesting subject for his essay in descriptive psychology in "The Sub-conscious" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., $2.50 net), and it seems almost impossible to render dull even a second-hand narrative, *e. g.*, of the extraordinary adventures of "the Rev. Mr. Hanna," "Mlle. Hélène Smith," or the three "Miss Beauchamps." He treats it, moreover, as befits a competent psychologist, by emphasizing the relations and tracing the connections between the normal and the abnormal, the conscious and the sub-conscious, functions of our complex personality. The book, nevertheless, can hardly be accorded unreserved commendation. It is far too diffuse, and consequently far too long (over 500 pp.). It is written, moreover, in a highly metaphorical language which is better calculated to obscure Professor Jastrow's meaning than to render it popular, as was doubtless his intention. It is also far too full of usages which, like "novitiate" for "novice" (p. 255), are at best very doubtful or rather downright blunders. And on the theoretic side also the work is not remarkable for any great lucidity, strength, and insight. He could have improved it considerably if he had defined the vague terms he has to use, and inquired how the "normal" differs from the "usual," how "waking" life is differentiated from a "dream" and what are the motives and methods for discriminating between "real" and "illusory" experiences. If he had done this, he could have made clearer the very ambiguous notion of the "abnormal" which at present covers both that which departs from the standard of efficient functioning and that which over-passes the usual. It would also have added to the interest and value of the book if he had explained in detail the grounds for his dissent from the theories embodied in Myers's great work on "Human Personality."

An interesting work is the biography of the well-known German poet and scholar, Hermann Kurz, written by his daughter, Isolde Kurz, one of the most popular of living German authors, especially in the domain of fiction. The biography, just published by Georg Müller in Munich, is particularly valuable for the description of his private life and the severe material difficulties with which he had to contend even in the pursuit of an ultimately successful literary career.

It is commonly supposed that the English books republished by American houses some thirty or forty years ago were usually pirated. This was, in fact, too often the case, but the more honorable firms paid well for the property they took. Harpers, for instance, paid Dickens £1,000 for "A Tale of Two Cities," £1,250 for "Great Expectations," £1,000 for "Our Mutual Friend," £250 for "Little Dorrit," £360 for "Bleak House." To Thackeray they paid £150 for "The Newcomes," £100 for "Henry Esmond," £480 for "The Virginians," and £200 for the unfinished "Denis Duval." Some of the payments to Anthony Trollope are interesting. Thus, £25 went for "The Bertrams," £50 for "Castle Richmond," £50 for "Rachel Ray," £100 for "Phineas Finn," £50 for "Phineas Redux," £200 for "The Way We Live Now," £175 for "The Prime Minister," £100 for "The Life of Cicero," £200 each for "The Eustace Diamonds," "Orley Farm," "Lady Anna," and "Ralph, the Heir"; £250 for "The Golden Lion of Granpre," about £700 for "Sir Henry Hotspur." "Adam Bede" was published anonymously, and £20 was paid as an honorarium; for "Silas Marner," £100 was paid, and for "The Mill on the Floss" and "Felix Holt" the author received £300 each. The amount paid for "Middlemarch" was £1,200, and for "Daniel

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Deronda" £1,700. The payments for Wilkie Collins's stories were large: £500 for "No Name," £360 for "The Woman in White"; "Man and Wife" and "The Moonstone," £750 each; "Poor Miss Finch," £600; "Law and the Lady," £500; "The New Magdalen," £588. Charles Reade's stories brought the author considerable sums: £200 for "Love Me Little," £500 for "Put Yourself in His Place," £200 for "Hard Cash," and nearly £1,000 for "A Woman Hater."

The recent sale in London of pre-Shaksperian plays proved very successful. The total price realized for the seventeen lots was £2,602, or about $13,000. Among the more important individual prices were: "Trial of Treasure," 1567—£160; "A Right Pithy, Pleasaunt and Merie Comedie Intytuled gammer Gurtons Needle," 1575, the very rare first edition of this the second English comedy—£180; George Wapull, "The Tyde Taryeth no Man," 1576, the rare and only edition—£176; "A Preaty Enterlude called Nice Wanton," 1560—£169; "An Enterlude of Welth and Helth," probably unique—£195; Thomas Preston, "A Lamentable Tragedie, containing the Life of Cambises, King of Percia, (?) 1570, probably the first of the two editions printed without a date—£169; Thomas Ingelend, "The Desobedient Child," circa 1565—£233; "Thenterlude of Youth," printed by John Waley, no date, but probably 1557—£230; "A New Enterlude . . . entituled New Custome," printed by William How, no date —£155; and "A Newe Interlude of Impacyente Poverte," 1560—£150. It is understood several of these plays will find their way to the British Museum.

The Society of Authors of England now has £2,643 invested in funds, the income to be used for pensions. Within the year it has received a legacy of £50.

For some time past the financial troubles of Cambridge University, due largely to the shrinkage in value of rural real estate, have been growing more acute. Both Oxford and Cambridge have suffered from the popular delusion that they are rolling in wealth. The Cambridge University Library and several of the scientific schools have been badly crippled for years by the lack of funds. A few months ago an effort was begun to raise £150,000 for the perpetual endowment of the library, but of this amount less than £18,000 has been promised, and the prospect is not bright. Now the vice-chancellor, the librarian, and other authorities have issued an urgent appeal to old university men and others, for help in their time of need. Although the Cambridge Library is not so famous as the Bodleian, and far less imposing in its architecture, it is nevertheless one of the largest in the United Kingdom, contains nearly half a million volumes, and many priceless MSS. It certainly ought to be endowed with an income in some degree commensurate with its importance. As matters now stand it is impossible to increase or even maintain its efficiency, a condition which falls little short of a national humiliation.

In the twenty-one German universities the number of matriculated students during the present semester is 44,964, of whom 211 are women; there are also 2,381 male and 1,274 female hearers, making in all 48,619. In the last semester there were 42,390, and in the summer semester of 1905, 41,928 students, showing an increase respectively of 2,574 and 3,036. Berlin has the largest number of students, namely, 6,569; then come Munich, 5,734; Leipzig, 4,147; Bonn, 3,275; Freiburg, 2,350; Halle, 2,128; Göttingen, 1,925; Heidelberg, 1,922; Breslau, 1,920; Marburg, 1,717; Tübingen, 1,710; Münster, 1,454; Strassburg, 1,418; Jena, 1,362; Würzburg, 1,360; Kiel, 1,157; Giessen, 1,118; Königsberg, 1,080; Erlangen, 1,067; Griefswald, 890; Rostock, 661. The statistical records of the last thirty years show that the increase in the number of university students has been far more rapid than that of the population. In 1876 there were 16,799 university students; in 1886, 27,721; in 1896, 29,280, and in 1906, as already stated, there are 48,619. These figures prove that during this period of one generation the increase of students has been nearly three-fold and that of the population less than one-half.

Among the methods adopted in England to increase the interest in and knowledge of India is the presentation by the Royal Asiatic Society of a medal for the best essay on some Indian topic by a public school boy. This year it fell to a member of the sixth form at Rugby, whose subject was Hyder Ali. In presenting the medal John Morley, secretary of state for India, said that he did not think it quite accidental that the prize this year had fallen to Rugby, because he could not forget that of all the public schools Rugby was the first, under the admirable inspiration of Dr. Arnold, which taught history in the spirit in which it was pursued to-day. After commending the intelligence, promise of historical grasp, and aptitude in searching for historical parallels which the essay exhibited, he said that there was nothing more important in his opinion than the recognition of the extraordinarily perplexing problem in India. The only way to a solution was in acquiring a real knowledge of the thoughts, beliefs, social usages, conditions, and history of the Indian peoples. In the course of his speech he recalled an incident of his own schoolboy days at Cheltenham. History was taught then, but he did not remember that they ever wrote prize essays on history. He never did. But he did write what he wished should be a prize poem; it was not successful. However, the headmaster said: "I am glad you have composed this poem, because it shows all the elements of a sound prose style."

The successful ascent on June 18, as announced in a telegram to the King of Italy, dated from Uganda, of the lofty Ruwenzori by Prince Luigi, Duke of the Abruzzi, is another remarkable illustration of the value of preparation and of what might be termed boundless resource in the prosecution of certain forms of geographical research. It is true that not many efforts had heretofore been made on the great ice mountain of Central Africa, and the failures reported were in no wise discreditable to Alpinism; but what is apparent in the latest attempt, and that which stands out with marked significance, is the dispatch with which the work was accomplished. The journey thither and the ascent of the mountain took only a few weeks. The same dispatch marked the Duke's brilliant ascent of Mount St. Elias, Alaska, in 1897; and the same direct, business-like method was applied two and three years later to the attack upon the Polar regions, when Capt. Cagni attained the "farthest north" in latitude 86 degrees 33 minutes north, surpassing by thirty miles Nansen's hard-fought effort with what by comparison seemed to be scarcely more than child's play. The lesson of the value of Alpinistic methods and of a sufficiency of good Alpine guides as they are recognized in Italy and Switzerland could not be more impressively taught.

—The second volume of Harry Alonzo Cushing's "Writings of Samuel Adams" (Putnams) covers the years 1770 to 1773. What strikes the reader is the large space devoted to newspaper writings attributed to Adams. The volume contains ninety-two pieces in all; of these forty-one are newspaper articles, twenty are reports or memorials prepared in committee, and thirty-one are private letters. The reports or memorials were presented by committees, of which Adams was a member, and it is to be presumed that they passed through more than one hand before taking the form in which they are now printed. Thus the language may be Adams's, though the matter was supplied by others. Mr. Cushing offers few intimations of the reasons for giving the authorship of these writings to Adams. Wells was notoriously partial to his subject, and took credit for Adams upon the flimsiest pretext. The mere presence of Adams upon a committee led to the assumption that he wrote the report; the employment of a signature in the newspaper, upon one occasion, was accepted as proof that all articles so signed came from his pen. Bancroft attributed the "Chatterer" and other series to Adams. Mr. Cushing mentions in confirmation some "apparently contemporaneous annotations" found in a file of the *Gazette*, once owned by Dorr; but he does not state what these annotations are, whether a direct attribution of authorship or a surmise on the part of the annotator. The first form of one of the "Vindex" series is in the Adams manuscripts in the Lenox Library, which induced Mr. Cushing to include thirteen "Vindex" pieces in this volume. In like manner a draft of a "Candidus," found in the same place, gives opportunity to reprint nineteen articles so signed. Hutchinson is hardly a safe witness where his dislikes were involved, and his belief that Adams was the author of two letters to Franklin and a State paper cannot be accepted as final in default of better evidence. In a few instances a note (and the notes of the editor are, as a rule, excellent) directs attention to other claimants to the authorship of these papers, but even the presence of a copy of a State paper in the Adams MSS. cannot be conclusive, as copies were freely taken of important documents by those interested. It would appear, therefore, as if the material which may be accepted as unquestionably by Adams, forms a small part of this volume, and is to be found in the letters, nearly all of which have appeared in print in other places. Mr. Cushing has followed Wells too closely, and has not made such a careful, critical study of the contributions to journals as to give his decision the requisite weight.

—Mrs. Zelia Nuttall, whose work as an Americanist has done much to advance our

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knowledge of the ethnic relations and conditions of life of the aborigines of middle America, contributes to the publications of the University of California an interesting paper on the "Earliest Historical Relations between Mexico and Japan." Much of the material contained in this paper has been obtained from still inedited documents pertaining to the conquest and organization of the Spanish possessions in the New World, which form part of the Madrid publications, while the remainder has been drawn from the historical notes of Ortega, published in the City of Mexico in 1879, and the very recent writings of Señor Lera, the Mexican Minister Plenipotentiary to Japan and China. The first steps toward the establishment by Japan of official relations with New Spain seem to have been initiated by the "illustrious" Tokugawa Iyeyasu as far back as 1598, by the same ruler, therefore, who subsequently framed for his country the theory and condition of exclusion and isolation. In a communication addressed a few years later to the governor of Luzon, Iyeyasu promises the abrogation of piracy in Japanese waters in compensation for support in establishing direct trade relations between his country and New Spain, which at that time appears to have been one of Iyeyasu's chief desires. Within less than a quarter of a century from this time Iyemitsu issued his edict interdicting Christianity in Japan and ordering away all foreigners. Mrs. Nuttall finds that in 1610 twenty-three Japanese noblemen and merchants, forming part of an official or semi-official embassy, passed several months in the capital of New Spain, and that in 1613 this number had been increased to nearly two hundred. The indications of Asiatic influence in New Spain which have from time to time engaged the attention of ethnologists, are thought to be properly referable to this early Japanese influx. Mrs. Nuttall also attributes to the Japanese the introduction of the grass or palm-leaf raincoat, which is to-day worn by the Indians of the Pacific Coast of Mexico, and which is thought to be identical with the similar garment "used in Japan from time immemorial." But it should be remembered that a largely identical garment is common with the peasantry of southern Hungary and Rumania.

—After an interval of twenty years we are glad to see a second edition of John Chipman Gray's. "The Rule against Perpetuities" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). A very modest preface states that about a hundred pages have been added to the text, and fifty to the appendix. The subject is too technical for the apprehension of the laity in general, yet there is no branch of legal learning less obnoxious to the reproach of irrationality or inconsistency. The author, who may fairly be said to be our modern master of it, likens the solution of its problems to those of questions in mathematics, which must, in the light of the axioms and corollaries proper to the Rule, be either right or wrong. The decisions under it are not among those which "might as well have been decided the other way." Leaving out questions of construction—for the question of what the Rule means is one of hermeneutics rather than of law—the discussion of the true application of the Rule against Remoteness (the alternative designation suggested by the author) is a matter of severe logic and pure ratiocination. In the legislature-beridden community in which we New Yorkers live, the Rule does not exist, having been replaced two generations since by the statute making it necessary that future interests shall vest within "two lives." This statute, like the Statute of Frauds may be said to have produced far more trouble than its non-enactment could ever have possibly caused. Before the passage of the Revised Statutes—when the ordinary Rule was in force—there had been but one case relating to it. From the passage of the Revised Statutes down to 1886, when the first edition of this treatise was published, there had been one hundred and seventy cases; in the period since 1886 there have been some one hundred and sixty-six cases more. Such are the fruits of ill-considered law reform.

—A short time ago Drs. W. Amelung and H. Holtzinger contributed to the series called "Moderner Cicerone" a volume in which the former described *Die Antiken-Sammlungen*, and the latter *Die Ruinen Roms*. This work has now been issued in an English translation, in two volumes, under the title 'The Museums and Ruins of Rome' (Dutton), and Amelung has added three new chapters (on the Museo Barracco, and the collections in the Villa Borghese and the Villa Papa Giulio), besides recasting many of his former descriptions and constructing a useful chronological index. The private collections of the city are not included in either description or index. Amelung is one of the very best living authorities on ancient sculpture, as all readers know who are familiar with his works on the antiques in Florence and on the Vatican sculptures; and this present volume will be an indispensable companion to students in the museums themselves, and for home study as well, resembling in this respect Helbig's well known guide. Amelung's knowledge and experience are broad and solid, his perception keen, and his writing vigorous yet pleasant. The translation represents him as worthily as perhaps any translation of a book of æsthetic as well as historic criticism could reproduce its original.

—Holtzinger's volume on the ruins is neither valueless nor unattractive, but is by no means of as commanding interest in its field as is its comrade. The author is evidently acquainted with recent work by both Italians and Germans, but writes as a student rather of architecture than of topography and history, and sometimes appears not to assimilate with ready discretion the conclusions of others. His book is not calculated to supersede a formal guide about the city of Rome, but might well accompany such a guide. The English translator, however, was apparently little acquainted with the subject, and not too well with the German language; and the supervision of the English reviser, Mrs. S. Arthur Strong, was apparently not extended over this volume. As a result, Holtzinger is made to say many wrong things of which a comparison with the German original shows that he is not guilty. See, for mere example (p. 1), "earthen wall" for *Wallmauer* (p. 10), "slope of the Cacus" for *Aufgang des Cacus*, (p. 11) "next" for *zunächst*, "down to" for *noch in* (p. 14) "in its old position" for *in der Anlage*, (p. 101) "water-citadel" (whatever that may be) for *Wasserkastell*, (p. 109) "paved floors" for *Fussbodenschmuck*, (p. 121) "one of the reliefs which contained his portrait" for *auf einem der Reliefs dessen Bildniss*. "Fourteen" (p. 12, of the shrines of the "Argaei"—*sic*) represents accurately the "14" of Holtzinger's text, but this was doubtless a misprint for 24. The very copious and excellent half-tone illustrations of the original are fairly reproduced in the translation, but have lost much of their primal brilliance.

The New Theatre Association of Chicago has organized a play competition. The piece selected will be produced in due season by the New Theatre Company. The conditions are (1) that the play must be an original drama, and not a translation, adaptation, or dramatization of any published work; (2) it must treat of modern American life, and be written by a citizen of the United States; (3) it must be substantially in a form for acting, and will be judged as an acting play; (4) it must be in three or four acts, without change of scene in any act, must not require over two and a half hours to play, and must not have over fifteen speaking characters. It must be submitted not later than December 1, 1906, to the New Theatre (Play Contest), No. 17 Van Buren Street, Chicago. Dramatists with rejected plays on hand will doubtless avail themselves of this invitation, but not much time has been allowed for new compositions. Nor are plays written in four months likely to be worth much.

The Chestnut Street Theatre, in Philadelphia, will have, after January 1, a stock company of its own, which will produce original plays, each of which will be presented for two weeks, by way of test. Six of these plays have already been selected. They are: "The Round-Up," by Edmund Day; "A Marriage of Reason," by Hartley Manners; "Goggles and Gasolene," adapted from the German; "The Energetic Mr. West," by Edgar Selwyn; a new farce by John J. McNally, and "Peaches," by George V. Hobart. After these plays have had their run, four original musical comedies and operas will be presented in succession. In this programme there is nothing to create much enthusiasm, so far as the plays themselves are concerned, but the establishment of a stock company upon something like sound old-fashioned principles is cause for congratulation. If the experiment is persisted in members of the company will enjoy in some measure the training and varied practice which is indispensable to the production of actors.

Comyns Carr's new play, "Tristram and Iseult," will be produced at the London Adelphi early in September. Oscar Asche will be King Mark and Miss Lily Brayton Iseult. To Matheson Lang has been assigned the character of Tristram, and there is some curiosity to see what this young actor, whose rise has been very rapid, will do with it. The cast will further include Miss Huton Briton as Arganthael, and Miss Gertrude Scott as Queen Oren, mother of Iseult. The play is in four acts. The first, on the coast of Cornwall, relates how Tristram was dispatched to Ireland by King Mark, ostensibly to be cured of his wound, but

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really to meet his death for having slain Moraunt, son of King Gorman of Ireland. The second act takes place at the Irish court, outside of which the famous tournament is in progress. The third represents the deck of the ship on which Tristram has embarked, together with Iseult, and the fourth, divided into two scenes, reveals in the first instance a room in King Mark's castle, and in the second Iseult's bower in the forest.

Justin Huntly McCarthy has a rival. Edward St. John Brenon announces that he also has written a drama having Cæsar Borgia for its hero.

Bernard Shaw's play, "Cæsar and Cleopatra," in which Forbes Robertson is to be seen here in October, is in constant rehearsal in London under the direction of its author. Report says that, owing to certain difficulties revealed by rehearsal, it has been found advisable to cut out the third act altogether. Mr. Shaw generally arranges the construction of his play with a view to such contingencies. You could not cut an act out of one of Shakspere's dramas without injuring it. In the case of Mr. Shaw's masterpieces, it is different. Herein may be found one of the many evidences of his superiority to the Swan of Avon.

London managers are reported to have come to the conclusion that the days of the variety shows offered to the public under the title of musical comedies are nearly ended. They think, in other words, that the patience of theatregoers has been exhausted at last by the impudent repetition of stale buffooneries under new names, and that some new form of entertainment must be devised to take its place. It is certain that nothing more worthless can be substituted, because the lowest depths of folly in this direction were sounded long ago. Any change, therefore, must necessarily be for the better. It does not follow, however, that it is likely to come at once, or even very soon. A single new success might alter the entire situation. But a good deal of money has been sunk lately in pieces of this description, and the promoters are growing tired of putting their hands into their pockets. Hoyt's compositions had a certain freshness and pertinency about them, although they were a pretty light foundation for the substantial fortune reared upon them, but there were no such redeeming features in the productions of his imitators, whose only aim seems to have been to excel each other in silliness, vulgarity, and extravagance. What must Shakspere think—if his shade ever revisits the glimpses of our moon—of Seymour Hicks's proposal to make a "musical comedy" out of "As You Like it"?

A pretty severe dose of the most objectionable kind of modern French drama has been administered to Londoners lately, and some of the critics have summoned up courage enough to rebel against it, even at the risk of being sneered at by the devotees of the "advanced" drama for their methodistical and provincial turn of mind. Réjane has been playing "Le Rafale," in its entirety, and evidently with superb passion. She made a personal success, but clearly failed to convince all observers that the brilliancy of her acting was a sufficient justification of the object of it. She seems, however, to have extinguished all memory of Mrs. Patrick Campbell, who tried an expurgated version of the piece with indifferent success. Sardou's latest comedy, "La Piste," is less objectionable in character, and has the merit of being amusing, while "Le Rafale" certainly is not, but even this is marked by the old familiar taint, the old cynical assumption that impurity is the most natural and fitting subject of jest. The Sardou piece, however, is wholesome as new milk compared with "Le Passé" of George Porto Riche, in which Mlle. Brandès, the well-known actress of the Français, has been acting in London. As one London writer says: "It is really the worst kind, or almost the worst kind, of French yellow-back put upon the stage, and after seeing it one looks about for some sort of disinfectant for the soul."

Oscar Hammerstein has announced his intention of paying more attention to the spectacular ballet than it receives at the Metropolitan Opera House. Such ballets have enlisted the services of some of the great masters, especially in Russia, Austria, and France. Rubinstein might almost be said to be at his best in his ballets, and Tchaikovsky also wrote some master works in this line which every music-lover is eager to hear and see. London newspapers speak of a revival of the ballet in that city. Some time ago a variety theatre produced the "Coppélia" of Delibes, while another brought out Thomé's "Amour," both with so much success that the Opera Syndicate felt encouraged to revive Messager's twenty-year-old" Deux Pigeons."

Has Canada any national music? This question was put the other day by a representative of the London *Tribune* to Dr. Charles Harriss, "the most energetic and far-seeing of Canada's musicians." He replied:

Yes, decidedly we have; but you must go to the backwoodsmen, the logmen, the boatmen of our great rivers for it. There, indigenous among the older race of French settlers, you will find real folk-music. Sir A. Mackenzie thought he discovered traces of Scotch influence in it, but it is mainly French. Our present viceroy, Lord Grey, who interests himself with enthusiasm in all our artistic hopes, is at the head of a movement for the investigation of our folk-songs, and has himself arranged a water festival, which will presently be held, when representative singers from the backwoods are to chant their songs as they glide past the governor in their boats.

Dr. Harriss's career is a fine example of what a man of energy and ability can do in building up an interest in music. Twenty-four years ago he left England and went to Montreal, where he became organist of the Cathedral. He has composed music; he has taken an active part in the work of the Montreal Philharmonic; he has organized the musical department of McGill University; he helped in every possible way to foster musical education in his adopted country. In 1902 he began to extend his influence beyond Montreal by organizing a cycle of "peripatetic music festivals" held in the Canadian cities from Halifax on the Atlantic to Vancouver on the Pacific. English music alone was sung and played—the works of Parry, Stanford, Mackenzie, Sullivan, Cowen, German, Elgar, and the festivals were a great success. For the season of 1907-8 Dr. Harriss plans a similar festival, on a broader basis, so far as the programmes are concerned, inasmuch as French music as well as British is to be performed; the French probably under the direction of Saint-Saëns.

The least popular of all varieties of the tonal art is chamber music. This is due partly to the limited range of the color scheme, which makes an orchestra so much more interesting than the usual string quartet. But probably the main reason is the stubborn conservatism of the writers of chamber music, who adhere to the tiresome and artificial old sonata form with a perseverance worthy of a better cause. While orchestral conductors have overtures and symphonic poems, and while pianists have short pieces innumerable to vary the symphonic or sonatal monotony, the chamber musician has to content himself with the unvarying cyclic piece in four movements.

England has a society called the Worshipful Company of Musicians, which, not long ago, offered a very generous prize for the best chamber music works of smaller dimensions and more free structure than the form which has heretofore been connected with this branch of the art. At a recent concert in London six examples of this new style of works, to which the name of Phantasies has been given, were played. To all of them prizes had been awarded. The first prize went to a "Phantasy in A," by the late W. Y. Hurlstone.

A German journalist in London suggests that "Parsifal" ought to be produced in that city, if only to demonstrate to the English that the stage is a worthy place for a quasi-religious work of art. He notes that when an opera by Massenet, in the last act of which an image of the Madonna comes to life, was produced at Covent Garden a few weeks ago, many left before that scene came on, while those who remained seemed afraid to applaud this act, thus showing what a low opinion they have of the stage. The renaissance of the English drama, he goes on to say, cannot be brought about until the advent of a Schiller to teach the British that the stage is not necessarily a degraded and degrading institution.

Leipzig is to have a new Bach monument, to be placed before the Thomaskirche, of which he was cantor twenty-seven years. It is to be made by Professor Seffner and will cost 50,000 marks, of which all but 2,000 is assured. The city contributes 30,000 marks.

THE FRENCH IN CANADA.

La Colonisation de la Nouvelle-France: Étude sur les Origines de la Nation Canadienne Française. Par Émile Salone, Professeur d'Histoire au Lycée Condorcet. Paris: E. Guilmoto.

Le Canada: Les Deux Races. Par André Siegfried. Paris: Armand Colin.

We were once told by Sir Adolphe Chapleau that, at the celebration of a silver wedding, he had sat down to dinner with a French Canadian mother and eighteen of her sons. Making allowance for the average infant mortality, this was an achievement well calculated to elicit fervent admiration from the dignitaries of both Church and State. Particularly in France, where a stationary population

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gives cause for grave concern, are the pacific conquests of the French Canadian mother likely to call forth a tribute of praise. Nor is it matter of conjecture alone. During the past ten years French writers have devoted an amount of attention to the affairs of Canada which can be accounted for only by the fact that the growth of the French in America is becoming a source of pride to the economists and historians of Paris. The new attitude is defined with perfect clearness by M. Siegfried in the following passage, which is taken from his chapter on "Canada and France":

Though for a whole century we made the great mistake of forgetting almost completely these brothers who have become separated from us, we have fortunately abandoned such culpable indifference, and are now beginning to understand (late, it is true, but not too late), that, putting aside all regret for the inevitable, a noble possibility still lies before us: to aid this sister civilization, to profit by it in extending the field of our commercial activity, and, in a measure restricted but appreciable, to benefit by it in defending some of our political interests.

We have before us two excellent books, both of which owe their origin, one may be sure, to the fact already mentioned. "La race canadienne a pris racine" are the concluding words of M. Salone. "Il ne saurait d'abord nous être indifférent que près de deux millions de Français—plus de deux millions si l'on compte ceux de la Nouvelle-Angleterre — maintiennent fièrement en Amérique leur existence, leur langue et leur culture propre": such is the basal consideration of M. Siegfried. Both writers have approached their subject seriously, and paid French Canada the compliment of investigating before writing. As his title shows, M. Salone confines himself to the original settlement. M. Siegfried, on the contrary, devotes no portion of his space to the recital of the steps whereby the French in Canada have come to occupy their present position. Assuming that his reader is familiar with the essential features of the national history, he sets out to consider existing conditions. We have brought these volumes under a single title simply for the sake of emphasizing the degree of interest which France now takes in Canada. The phenomenon is relatively new and deserves some notice. Otherwise the books in question require the separate criticism which we shall now proceed to offer.

When an English writer sets out to describe the Old Régime in Canada, the reviewer's first instinct is to see how much has been pilfered from Parkman, and unfortunately in many cases the indebtedness amounts to more than the law allows. By way of contrast M. Salone goes forward with complete independence of his leading predecessor. Parkman's name is omitted from the bibliography which stands at the opening of the volume, while opposite Casgrain's 'Montcalm et Lévis' appears the note, "le livre définitif sur la guerre de Sept ans en Amérique." Neither in the body of the text nor in any of the abundant footnotes have we seen more than one allusion to a work which nine people out of ten in the United States and in the English part of the Dominion would immediately say was the chief contribution yet made to the historical literature of Canada. It cannot be imagined that Parkman's celebrity is unknown to M. Salone. Two inferences remain. Either our author wishes to make his study represent a perfectly fresh scrutiny of the materials, or else he looks upon Parkman's works as negligible. We can easily understand that he should wish to reach his main conclusions unaffected by the views of any other writer, but why, having arranged his conclusions, he should not place them beside those of Parkman we cannot see. The French Canadian historians—Garneau, Faillon, Ferland, Casgrain, Chapais, Sulte—are referred to frequently, nor is there any disposition to pass over the contributions of Rochemonteix and Lorin. Parkman alone, and he, in our judgment, the most conspicuous writer on the Old Régime in Canada, seems systematically boycotted. On the one occasion when he is mentioned (p. 453) the allusion is but slight, and his name is misspelled.

We lay some stress upon a fact which has caught our attention and from its singularity occasions much surprise. Speaking more at large, M. Salone is under no obligation whatever to any English writer, but draws the bulk of his materials from the *Archives du Ministère des Colonies*, the archives of Quebec, the *Édits et Ordonnances*, the *Jugements du Conseil Souverain*, the reports of the Jesuits and Sulpicians, and other sources of a similar kind. These have been supplemented by a study of the leading monographs produced in France and in French Canada. M. Salone considers the problems of colonization as they appear through the course of French rule, and investigates with much thoroughness those features of the administrative system which can be made to elucidate the process of settlement. Beginning with a physiographical account of the region occupied by the immigrants, he passes from period to period in the annals of New France until the final catastrophe is reached. On the topographical side the work is particularly valuable, and an immense amount of detail has been forced to yield definite conclusions regarding the state of the seigniories from their establishment until the Cession.

At one point less information is given than we might have wished. M. Salone is content to take over from Ferland, Faillon, and Rameau his analysis of the population according to origin. And even in stating Ferland's results he is not quite accurate. Thus, when speaking of the Norman group, he places it at almost one-half of the total according to Ferland's conclusions, but the figures upon which he bases this statement show the Norman element to have been barely more than 30 per cent. We could point out a number of loose statements, and a few distinct mistakes. In the former category may be placed the remark that about Montreal the snow disappears before the first of April, and the application of such a phrase as "vainqueur des Bostonnais" to the leader of a French and Indian raid. Among the larger errors is the remarkable piece of mistranslation which occurs just at the close of the volume. M. Salone, after stating that in 1763 the French race was so far rooted in Canada that it could not be dislodged by the conqueror, proceeds thus: Et voici l'aveu de découragement qui, dès 1767, échappe au général Carleton, le second gouverneur de Québec, le successeur immédiat de Murray: "Le dénouement inévitable, écrit-il à lord Shelburne, chose horrible à penser, c'est que ce pays devra à la fin être peuplé par la race canadienne, laquelle a déjà pris racine et atteint un si haut chiffre que toute autre serait entièrement perdue, sauf dans les villes de Québec et de Montréal."

Now the actual words of Carleton to Shelburne run as follows:

But while this severe climate and the poverty of the country discourage all but the natives, its healthfulness is such that these multiply daily, so that, barring a catastrophe shocking to think of, this country must to the end of time be peopled by the Canadian race, who already have taken such firm root and got to so great a height that any new stock transplanted will be totally hid and imperceptible amongst them, except in the Towns of Quebec and Montreal.

Obviously Carleton is not saying that the presence of the French is a catastrophe, but that, barring a catastrophe, they will always inhabit the valley of the St. Lawrence!

We do not present a complete catalogue of the slips we have observed, because the book as a whole is a good one and embraces a wealth of interesting detail regarding the circumstances which attended the settlement of the French in Canada. It is admirably written, and deserves to rank among the best historical monographs that have come to this side of the Atlantic from France.

In estimating M. Siegfried's study of contemporary problems in Canada, we must first state that the author is well fitted by birth, training, and intellectual temperament to write upon the complicated phenomena of Canadian life. A highly educated French Liberal, who has freed himself from the narrower prejudices of anti-clericalism, a traveller who is thoroughly familiar with English life and has already written an excellent book on New Zealand, a quick observer and a lucid writer, he enters the field with many advantages. Moreover, he shows both tact and fearlessness in his account of the Canadian temper. The political institutions of the country are not difficult to understand, and any clever youth could prepare an octavo upon them without once leaving the shades of the Bibliothèque Nationale. Such difficulties as arise, and they are many, may be traced to the peculiarities of the position occupied by the French in Canada. These, too, it is quite possible to apprehend in a purely intellectual fashion without once setting foot in the country. But nothing short of personal familiarity with the life which is led in the region of the Two Canadas can justify a European, whether French or English, in attempting to pronounce judgment upon the politics of the Dominion. M. Siegfried has lived in Canada long enough to know what the races think about each other, and to appreciate the paradoxes which arise, not only from the situation wherein the French Canadians have been placed by a strange chain of circumstances, but from the remarkable plight of the English—conquerors and a majority, but yet a majority that is unable to carry out a scheme of national education. M. Siegfried came to Canada and talked with all manner of men. Priests, as individuals, confessed to him their strong interest in contemporary France, while yet, as ecclesiastics, they were forced to declare anathema against her. He caught the echoes of the last

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general election in Ontario, and can repeat the cry of Conservative election agents opposing Laurier with the argument, "Don't vote for that damn Frenchman." He has even found out the idiosyncrasies of the Protestant sects, which he touches off with much wit and a sufficient amount of truth. Matthew Arnold felt sure that he knew all about the dissenters of England and could distinguish a Methodist from a Baptist by talking with him five minutes about the weather. Whether M. Siegfried could make this boast about the Protestants of Canada, we shall not pretend to say; but he certainly has kept his eyes open. Where, for instance, is the Scotchman who would rebel against the following little hit: "L'intransigeance des mœurs mise à part, les presbytériens deviennent les plus agréables des compagnons. Leur franchise cordiale et leur sens de l'hospitalité sont celébrés."

Possessing talent, objectivity, and a first-hand knowledge of his subject, M. Siegfried spares no pains to reach by careful analysis the essentials of Canadian life—on its political side. The Roman Church is so great a factor in politics that some account of its ecclesiastical position becomes necessary. The school question is so fundamental that conflicting types of instruction must be described. Otherwise, the interests of the volume are limited to issues which may be termed political in the narrower sense of the word. Racial and religious differences as furnishing the groundwork of party cleavage are placed in the front of the canvas, and involve an account of complications which are not purely local. For examole, the attitude of the French Canadian Catholic towards the British Government centred in Downing Street is more cordial than his attitude towards the average English Canadian who walks the streets of Montreal or Toronto. The extreme loyalty of the Latin Church in Canada to Rome brings in another non-local element. The sentimental attachment (quite divorced from any wish of political union) which many of the French Canadians feel for the land of their origin, causes glances at times to be cast across the Atlantic, leads M. Louis Frechette to burst forth in verse when a French warship enters the St. Lawrence, and makes Sir W. Laurier show more real enthusiasm when in Paris than when in London. Thus an allusion to French versus English in Canada brings in not merely the mutual relations of the two races as Canadians, but suggests the outlook of each towards London, Paris, and Rome.

M. Siegfried recognizes this fact in all its bearings, and makes the arrangement of his book conform to it. He also sees how strongly the influence of the American continent in general and the activity of the United States in particular are likely to affect the ideals of both races in Canada. We do not imply that M. Siegfried is a political prophet who dogmatizes in favor of annexation or any other solution of a mixed predicament. His forecasts are so noncommittal as to be merely a summarizing of conflicting factors, a simplification of the leading facts. But, looking to a future which is not remote, he sees the conquest of Canada by American manners, business methods, and intellectual outlook. Whether the bishops will be successful in protecting their flocks from such an inroad, is a large and doubtful question. On the other hand, M. Siegfried can see how powerfully the English in Canada are reacting to this stimulus: "Je ne veux pas dire par là que le péril d'une annexion soit écarté. Il existe; mais, comme nous l'avons montré plus haut, c'est sous une forme autre que celle de la conquête militarie ou politique. Ce n'est pas la nation américaine qui menace la hation canadienne; c'est plutôt la civilisation américaine qui menace de supplanter au Canada la civilisation britannique."

While it would not be easy to improve upon M. Siegfried's minute and systematic account of the Catholic Church in Canada, and while his notice of the school question as a thorny point in legislation is likewise admirable, we have found special interest in observing his opinion of the Canadian attitude towards imperialism. This new force presents itself under two main aspects, economic and military. As for its economic side, it is quite allowable to speculate concerning the degree of willingness which the English-speaking manufacturer in Canada will eventually show in surrendering percentages of his protection for the benefit of his British competitor. Similarly, the final deliverance of the French Canadian upon the subject of military imperialism is fair matter for guesswork. Not, in the latter case, that one can doubt the natural unwillingness of the French Canadian to send money abroad for military purposes, but that the extent of his unwillingness has not yet been accurately gauged by experience. M. Siegfried does not look for any signal triumphs of the imperial spirit in trade relations until Great Britain shall have adopted a policy of protection—in other words, for a long time. As for military imperialism, he does not think that present indications point towards the establishment of centralization. "The Canadians, instead of imperializing the national services, think only of nationalizing the imperial services." From this dictum it is an easy inference that the military policy of Canada at the present moment inclines towards nationality rather than towards imperialism. M. Siegfried appreciates exactly the position of M. Henri Bourassa, whose speeches in the House of Commons and whose article in the *Monthly Review* have aroused much resentment among English imperialists in Canada. The imperial idea as linking Great Britain and her colonies has its roots in sentiment. Now the French Canadians are destitute of any sentimental attachment to the country that conquered them. They look upon the Quebec Act in the light of a treaty rather than of a law. In the language of M. Bourassa: "Notre fidélité à l'Angleterre ne peut et ne doit être qu'une affaire de raison."

Slips in this volume are few and not very important. On page 117, a printer's error gives a wrong date to Laval; on pages 17-18, a rather misleading allusion is made to the scope of the Jesuits' Estates Act; on page 113, we doubt whether M. Siegfried has got to the bottom of a celebrated resignation; and on page 74, there is a passage in which "Broad Church" appears instead of "Low Church." On the whole we have been impressed by the distinctness and accuracy of M. Siegfried's knowledge no less than by his fairness and discernment. Goldwin Smith has written of Canada with more incisive pen. M. Siegfried does not aim at being incisive in the sense of being controversial. Aiming at the clear and impartial description of existing conditions, he has given us a book which yields to none in the literature of its subject for candor, acuteness, and grasp of the whole situation.

TWO RECENT NOVELS.

A Son of the People. By the Baroness Orczy. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1906.

In Cure of Her Soul. By Frederic Jesup Stimson. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1906.

There are who find perpetual nourishment in the story of a forced marriage converted into a conjugal triumph. Usually the pair are really in love with each other all the time and do not know it. Sometimes the bourgeois husband is too considerate to express his sentiments to his aristocratic helpmeet until the last page. Nothing indeed equals the rudeness of the aristocrat except the elegance of the peasant. Again, it is a rough bear who begins by frightening the shrinking dame—never the well-seasoned reader—and ends by proving to her that his brutality was only a form of shyness. Neither of these examples quite covers the case of "A Son of the People," yet to lovers of the "won after marriage" school of fiction this novel may safely be commended. Of course, in all such stories the satisfactory untying is to be counted on, but in this one it comes with singularly little cause, except the nature of the novel. Perhaps that is enough. At all events, to accept the conclusion as it comes is to leave one the freer to note those traits of the book which separate it from its kind.

It is only secondarily a love story and primarily a Hungarian picture. "An absorbing, a passionate fondness for the lowlands, the wild mysterious plains of Hungary" inspires the writer and is happily conveyed to the reader. The far-away horizon trembling in the intense heat, the vision of a white city rising in the distance, the horse and his rider, make a canvas that lives to the eye and in the memory. The pendent pictures of village life and noblemen's entertainments are fairly splashed with color, ranging from gloomy to lurid. Where peasants' wives rejoice in the blows their husbands inflict, as proof of affection, it is not surprising to find peasant men burning their neighbors' crops as expression of their disapproval of modern machinery, or to find the nobles persecuting the Jews. A great primitiveness invests this life, shut out entirely from latter-day ideas or confronted by woe when it opens ever so little to let them in. Life is a satisfaction to the man who has flour, wine, a few sweethearts, and a horse; it is a rapture if he can also acquire a bit of land. Thinking and reading may be done for all the neighborhood by the good priest and the hero whose rugged strength and merry affability make him a leader of men. This really interesting book is hurt by wordiness and repetitions of good effects, yet not unto destruction.

Whether or not Mr. Stimson wrote his latest book keeping pace with a serial, it

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has the faults which the serial form imposes. It covers far too wide ground, abstract and concrete, going on from interest to interest quite too much as life does, or a monthly call for copy. Instead of related groups of selected incidents, there are unrelated patches of unrestrained detail. Pinckney as a lawyer fighting railroad corporations is a sketch by himself. Pinckney as a student of sociology joining labor unions, arbitrating strikes, defying Trusts, is another. Pinckney pursuing grizzly bears, Pinckney promoting gigantic irrigation schemes, Pinckney the reformer politician, is exploited in each of his activities at excessive length. And there are still his love affairs to be considered: his marriage, his brief temptation, his Dantesque passion for his modern Beatrice of the settlement. These seem to leave no room for more, yet there is much more of both sketch and elaboration; of Rivington Street, of society, of Wall Street, of a sweet old Maryland garden, of Cambridge, Beverly, Newport, New York, Baltimore, Colorado, the Connecticut River, and of Taormina. Of these drawings the scenery is invariably attractive, the portraiture as a rule distinct. The society chapters, it seems, might very well have been Bowdlerized. To indicate the vices of a degenerate society without offence requires a tact and taste which if Mr. Stimson possesses he has not here chosen to display. We incline to think he has the qualifications, but that he has elected, no doubt from high motives, to make his picture gross rather than suggestive. His command of words, his ingenuity in epigram, his control over phrase, forbid the thought that he has said unintentionally anything that he has said; therefore it is with a misguided taste that he must be taxed.

The lessons of the book are mainly noble ones, developed with much generous interpretation of motive, much poetic breadth of vision. Particularly to be cherished, for example, are the views of the settlement girl upon the question of the work to be done for working girls by women. "The hardest thing I find? . . . To keep them from copying the wrong models—and to make them see the right ones. . . . They are not advertised. Work girls cannot imagine them; they have to meet them." "It is not so much the luxury, the comfort that the rich can really use, if only for themselves—it is the show of senseless possession. . . . We must get ideals—it comes back to that—we must learn not to be vulgar in our hearts." The triumph of duty is sung consistently, if too discursively, leading, to be sure, to no conventional "happiness ever after," but to things more important.

Leo Tolstoy: His Life and Work. Autobiographical Memoirs, Letters, and Biographical Material, Compiled by Paul Biriukoff, and Revised by Leo Tolstoy. Translated from the Russian. Volume I. Childhood and Early Manhood. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1906. $1.50 net.

It was a happy thought to compile materials concerning the activity of such a personality as that of Count Tolstoy before death should render correction of errors difficult or impossible. For such a compilation Mr. Biriukoff, whose adoring discipleship of, and close friendship with, Tolstoy has extended over more than twenty years, is, in some respect, well fitted. In fact, the banishment of Mr. Biriukoff from Russia, to which he alludes in his preface, was directly due to his ardent advocacy of some of his "Master's" theories, and attacks upon the established order. One can pardon somewhat his lack of literary skill, in view of his transparent honesty, and modest attitude toward his work as "material" for the use of more competent workers hereafter. Unhappily for future biographers who may resort to this material, Mr. Biriukoff has not always verified and correlated dates. For example, he says that Tolstoy's father and Tatiana Yergolsky "were born in the same year," but afterward he gives the dates two years apart. The references to certain persons are occasionally misleading. Countess A. A. Tolstoy (once or twice mentioned in full as Countess Alexandra Andreevna Tolstoy), herself a famous and important personage at court during three reigns, is sometimes called the great author's "aunt," sometimes "the friend of his youth," and sometimes she has no special designation. The uninitiated reader could not determine whether three women are alluded to or one, and what the real relationship is.

The autobiographical contributions to this volume possess the wonderfully vivid and appealing qualities with which we are already familiar in the author's works of fiction and personal record. His descriptions of scenery, of inward moods and motives, and of the characters and actions of the people about him are as fine as anything he has ever penned. As Tolstoy will, indubitably, figure extensively in many future as well as present lists of "books which have influenced me," the writings which influenced him at various stages of his career, are particularly interesting, and at times rather surprising. The self-questionings and strivings for perfection, the faith in its possibility, the extensive programme of reading for self-improvement, and the rules of conduct are also characteristic. "I have no modesty," he writes in his diary, during the Crimean war; and then proceeds to contradict himself by a self-drawn portrait which is about equally divided between pitiless truth, and misrepresentation which might lead astray any one not personally acquainted with him. It is at this time that he records the conception of an idea to found a new religion, which he attempted to carry out thirty years later with "What I Believe" and subsequent writings.

There are repeated evidences that as a writer Tolstoy not only never experienced the pain of "rejected addresses," but was from the first hailed by rival literary men as destined to be the greatest of all—which did not conduce to a low estimate of his own work and talents. His Diary contains the most convincing autobiographical material, because devoid of the rather strained and oppressive self-consciousness which characterizes the passages deliberately prepared for the biography.

The numerous illustrations, portraits of Tolstoy's ancestors, of himself at different ages, of his young wife, his house, his village, etc., are all of interest, although some of them are not wholly unfamiliar to the public.

This work will be reviewed in greater detail when all the volumes are published.

George Douglas, Eighth Duke of Argyll (1823-1900). Autobiography and Memoirs. Edited by the Dowager Duchess of Argyll. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co. $10 net.

"What I admire in this," said Dr. Johnson, when, on tour to the Hebrides, he stood looking at the ancestral seat of the Dukes of Argyll, "is the total defiance of expense." The reviewer contemplating the almost equal pile of this biography—more than 1,200 pages—detects defiance of various things—order, proportion, neat finish, whether in parts or in the whole. The late Duke himself wrote some 700 pages of his autobiography, and in them he found room and verge enough for his *longueurs* and irrelevancies. Moreover, he could write deadly dull: This, for example, is the ducal way of making things simple:

> When we speak of new scenes as making a great impression, we employ a familiar image taken from the effect produced on soft substances by the physical pressure of a seal, or by the contact of some other external substance, exercising an impressing force, and leaving a mould or cast of itself on a clay, or on wax, or some other recipient and yielding surface.

Too many such sleeping potions are offered the reader. When the Duke lets himself go on the intricacies of feudal land tenure in Scotland, or loses himself in the mazes of Scottish ecclesiasticism, or discourses on the land cess in India, his amplitude and dreariness are oppressive. This is the stranger because, in speeches and letters, the Duke of Argyll was often forcible by compression. He began writing this autobiography to occupy his old age; and seemingly fell a victim to that desire to leave nothing unsaid, which often possesses the garrulous veteran. Yet he remarks with fine unconsciousness that he was "never under any temptation to write for writing's sake, which is known as 'padding.'" And he records as if it were a great natural curiosity the fact that a presidential address of his at Glasgow put Whewell to sleep. It is not given to all Dukes to be aware of their fatal power.

The long career of the Duke of Argyll was filled with notable activities. Acceding to the title very young and unexpectedly—through a collateral branch of the family—he was of serious and energetic bent. Early called to a share in the Government, he was a member of several Cabinets, and played a considerable part as much in virtue of his hard work and sagacity as because of his rank. For years he was an enthusiastic follower of Gladstone, but broke with him on the land question and Home Rule; but their personal friendship remained unimpaired. Yet his chief distinction was as a controversial writer. He had considerable scientific attainments. From early life an eager naturalist, he had named all the birds, not always without a gun, and was practically skilled in geology. He read widely in science, too, and being, as he innocently observes, "inclined to question rather than to harbor doubt," he "took

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most naturally to religion and theology." A good part of his fame was that of the man who had exposed the fallacies of evolution. As such his "Reign of Law" used to be re-preached from a thousand pulpits. But time has put that right. It was too much of a piece with other manifestations of the Duke's versatility—his painting, his making verses; amusing but evanescent. In general literature it does not appear that he had catholic tastes. He was a great admirer as well as personal friend of Tennyson. To Wordsworth also he was devoted: "even the ponderous pages of 'The Excursion' and 'The Prelude' have never, when I have had time to read them, ceased to throw over me a certain spell." A thorough Scot, contradictious, hair-splitting, voluble, fervid, we do not imagine that the Duke of Argyll would have led Coleridge to modify his dictum that "Scotchmen with a little literature I have generally found disagreeable.

During our civil war the Duke was an outspoken friend of the North. He perceived from the first that the struggle was one for national existence; and from the beginning he also contended that the war was about slavery, and would lead either to its extinction or its exaltation. For taking this position when a Minister of the Crown, he was long held in grateful remembrance by Americans. Praise and thanks came to him from Motley and Beecher and Longfellow and Whittier. The latter wrote him in 1871:

Hast thou never thought of making a visit to the United States? Our people would welcome thee as their friend in the great struggle for Union and liberty, and in our literary and philosophical circles thou wouldst find appreciative and admiring friends.

The Duke made a short tour in this country in 1879. Writing of it to Gladstone, he said: "I was delighted with all I saw in the New World, differing as it did in many ways from any expectation I had formed of it. . . . Longfellow was very well, and as charming as ever. I have always thought his countenance such a beautiful one. . . . I was made ill by the fearful heat in New York, where the thermometer was 100 in the shade during the two days I was in it." Of Mrs. Stowe the Duke saw a good deal, "when," to quote the original Argyllese, "the unparalleled circulation of the book in England involved pecuniary transactions of corresponding magnitude, it became necessary for Mrs. Stowe to visit Europe." At first, he was disappointed in the "small and most inconspicuous woman," who would not pose or be oracular, but he soon conceived a great admiration for her. The Duchess of Sutherland gave a large reception to Mrs. Stowe, and "the tiny personality of the great writer was almost lost in the gilded and lofty surroundings of that beautiful room, whilst the magnificent figure of the hostess looked like some splendid bird of paradise mothering under her wings a little black chick." The Duke heard one of Emerson's lectures in London. "It was full of a dreamy beauty," but there was "no continuous thread of thought." "It was like the diffused perfume of Christian ethics, but without its doctrine, and therefore without its power." The whole Duke is in that "therefore."

Monographs, Garrick, Macready, Rachel, and Baron Stockmar. By Sir Theodore Martin, K.C.B., K.C.V.O. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1906. $3.50 net.

These monographs are all reprints, with the exception of a few details added for the sake of completeness and finish. The "Garrick" was first published in 1868; the "Stockmar" in 1872, and the "Macready" in 1875, all in the *Quarterly Review*, while the "Rachel" was published in *Blackwood's Magazine* in 1882. The fact that they are to-day singularly fresh, authoritative, and fascinating is a sufficient proof of their innate excellence. Of the three theatrical studies, indeed, it is not too much to say that no student of dramatic history can afford to be without them. Sir Theodore Martin is a nonagenarian, who throughout his long and industrious life has been intimately and actively associated with the leaders in political, literary, artistic, and social affairs, and not only writes with the authority of personal knowledge, but with the force and judgment of the student and scholar, and the compact and fluent arrangement of the practised author. His facts are wisely selected and carefully substantiated, his opinions—never rhapsodical eulogies—are fortified by simple quotations from various and weighty sources, and his criticism, whether favorable or unfavorable, is acute, clear and unexaggerated.

Of course he has nothing new to tell about Garrick, Macready, or Rachel. Concerning all of them there is an immense bulk of contemporaneous or posthumous testimony, and all readers are familiar with the main details of their public life and private character. What he has done is to select from the mass of evidence such salient facts as furnish a vivid intellectual image of the individual. His essays are, as it were, the essence of all that the most competent witnesses have told. A word of warning is, however, necessary. In all his statements of fact, Sir Theodore may be trusted implicitly, and there can be no doubt that he is always, in intent at least, scrupulously fair, but in reading his final estimate of Macready it must not be forgotten that he was the husband of Helen Faucit, whose earlier stage experience was a good deal embittered by the famous tragedian's passionate, jealous, and egotistic temper. Also it should be remembered that in genius and character Helen Faucit was in almost every respect the opposite of Rachel, her rival in fame, and, therefore, probably, but little disposed to put a charitable construction upon the brilliant Frenchwoman's expressed impatience of the restraints of civilized society. It is not impossible that her husband sometimes saw with her eyes. As for the panegyric upon Stockmar, who by general admission was a man of extraordinary political ability and disinterestedness, it must be noted that Sir Theodore, when he wrote it, was practically the mouthpiece of Queen Victoria, who held the baron in the highest estimation.

To the study of Garrick Sir Theodore brought a mind free from all bias, complete information and a ripe judgment. In his youth he must have known men who belonged to the great actor's generation and could speak of his powers and conduct from personal observation. He was all the more likely, therefore, to form a just appreciation of his subject, and it is pleasant to find this so entirely favorable. He is at especial pains to prove—and that, too, by strong evidence—that, so far from being niggardly and vain, Garrick was most generous in all deserving cases, and if fond of applause and somewhat eager to attract attention was, at all events, notably free from that particular form of vanity—with which Macready was so afflicted—that bears no rival near the throne. He never feared that his own brilliancy might be dimmed by that of his associates. The ablest performers of the time were grouped under his standard. Sir Theodore has a pertinent comment on this fact. "On the stage, as elsewhere, power kindles by contact with power; and to the great actor it is especially important that he secure himself, as far as he can, against being dragged down by the imbecility of those who share the stage with him." Regarding his managerial ability there is a suggestive passage in a letter written to him by Kitty Clive. She says: "There are people now upon the stage to whom you gave their consequence; they think themselves very great; now let them go on in their new parts, without their leading strings, and they will soon convince the world what their genius is." Garrick, doubtless, like many another great man, suffered much from envious detraction. Even Sarah Siddons was not ashamed to speak slightingly of the manager who was among the first to discern her talents and incurred much ill-will by his eagerness to push her forward in spite of the indifference of the public. Sir Theodore Martin quotes many instances in which Garrick sought to help others to his own loss.

It required some courage to write about Macready, thirty years ago, with the frankness which Sir Theodore employed. Admirable actor as the former was in certain parts, and valuable as were his efforts as a stage reformer, he never was altogether worthy of the pinnacle upon which some of his eulogists would place him. His attitude toward his calling, and his associates in it, is only too well known even to those who have only read his own journals. Once he said publicly of acting that persons who could find any other occupation would not take to one in which they were entirely dependent upon the favor of the public. "It was an ungracious speech," says Sir Theodore, "considering that the public had been kind to him to the full measure of his deserts. But it had a farther and a deeper significance, because it showed that the speaker wanted the first element of greatness—a thorough faith in his art, as in itself worthy, without reference to the measure of popular appreciation or of money value." It is a bitter saying, and "pity 'tis, 'tis true." But after all, Macready, perhaps, was the proper object of pity rather than blame. Throughout his professional life he suffered tortures from the infirmities against which he struggled in vain.

Sir Theodore's sketch of Rachel is illuminative, attractive, vital, and convincing. In her case, as in Macready's, he does not have to depend upon the verdict of others. He saw her act in her prime and in her decay. His judgment of her is careful, analytical and doubtless just. In her interpretation of the fierce passions of classic tragedy, he holds, that she was, at her

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best, supreme, incomparable; but the softer and more gracious attributes of feminine nature she could neither understand nor portray. Nor was she at all inspired by the spirit of comedy. Perhaps it was the coarse and wretched Bohemianism of her youth that prevented the development of purity and delicacy in her nature. Hers is one of the saddest of all stage stories, and Sir Theodore closes it very fittingly with a "Pauvre Rachel!"

The monograph on Stockmar is a fine bit of friendly appreciation, which, perhaps does not do much more than justice to the memory of an uncommonly shrewd, sagacious, and devoted man. Younger readers will be astonished to hear of the great but silent part played in European history by this political dry nurse of princes. For those who already know something of the jealousies, anxieties, and suspicions of the early Victorian era, this little essay will not afford much information. But it is interesting reading, nevertheless, as is the whole book.

The Making of Modern Egypt. By Sir Auckland Colvin. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1906. $4 net.

Sir Auckland Colvin was Comptroller-General in Egypt between 1880 and 1882, and Financial Adviser to the Khedive from 1882 to 1883; in describing the recent history, and happily of late the progress, of the Valley of the Nile, he therefore treats elaborately, though not exclusively, of the shifting financial situation. As the history is told by one who not only knew and had official intercourse with the principal actors—native and English—who have made modern Egypt, but also himself took part in some of the most eventful of the incidents, it carries authority. He was, for instance, an official in Egypt, when, after the crushing of the Arabi Rebellion, Lord Dufferin, the British Ambassador at Constantinople, was sent to Egypt, to report on the utter demoralization of the land, and to suggest remedies; which, in his ignorance, he bravely did. One of the practical questions he had to solve was the disposal of the arch-rebel Arabi and his principal co-partners, whose army "had vanished like a puff of smoke" before Lord Wolseley's advance, but who themselves remained as troublesome realities. The simplest solution would have been to cut off their heads in proper Oriental fashion, and this would probably have been the disposal made of them, had not the generous, warm-hearted Lord Dufferin appeared on the scene while the farce of the trial was in progress. He accepted the confession by the rebels of guilt in exchange for banishment to Ceylon. The incident, in its motives and effects, has been the subject of much contradictory comment ever since, and therefore the opinion of one of the prominent officials in Egypt at the time is worth noting. Sir Auckland Colvin remarks:

> It was not to be gainsaid, on the one hand, that, if the Khedive held the rebels in his power, it was due to no merits of his Government, but to the exertions of British troops. . . . But for British intervention, the prisoners and their friends would have thrown the whole house of Muhammad Ali, bag and baggage, into the Red Sea. The Khedive could not be allowed, under benefit of the intervention of a civilized Power, to make himself arbiter of their fate. It was for the Power that had subdued them to punish them. All this was unanswerable, and public opinion in Great Britain, flushed even by success over an Egyptian army, was disposed to show itself generous. Vanity was flattered by an occasion for the display of magnanimity; for magnanimity, like charity, may be indulged in without cost, if exercised at the expense of a third party.
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> There came the rub. The third party was the Khedive. The cost of British clemency had to be met by Tewfik Pasha, and the eclipse of the Khedive's authority was the measure of that cost. The British had landed in Egypt not to destroy the authority of the Khedive, but to restore it, and to retire. But, had they wished to destroy it, and to make prolonged occupation of Egypt necessary, they could have adopted no more effective means than by remitting the death sentence on rebellious officers in arms. In the autocratic East, the degree of submission to the ruler depends on the public estimate of his power, and this again depends on the free and unfettered use which he is seen to make of it. If the Khedive might not punish condignly the very head and front of offenders, his authority fell to the ground; nor could all the Queen's horses nor all the Queen's men raise it up again. The authority of the Khedive might still be maintained, as to the day of Tewfik's death and as under his successor it has been maintained, by foreign bayonets. But foreign bayonets must be kept in Egypt to support it. However sincere, therefore, the British Cabinet may have been in the expression of its wish to withdraw its troops from Egypt at the earliest opportunity, it is not be wondered at if the foreign colonies in Egypt, and the Governments to which they were subject—still less if the Khedive himself—regarded the clemency shown to the rebels as based upon the methods of Machiavelli. It was generally believed in Egypt that, though it might be the declared wish of the British to retire when the Khedive's power was restored, they had adopted, curiously enough, the one course calculated to prevent the restoration of his power.
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> A Liberal Government, led by Mr. Gladstone, after bombarding Alexandria and occupying the country, spurned the idea of governing Egypt as a tributary province under a resident, and yet brought about this same result, more drastically, by appointing as Consul-General and adviser to the Khedive, in 1883, Sir Evelyn Baring. He had spent three years in Egypt under the rule of Tewfik, as Major Baring, and now returned to grow in rank and influence till as Lord Cromer he has become in reality, though not in name, joint ruler of Greater Egypt as far south as the Equator. Just as the English army of occupation was about to withdraw in fulfilment of England's pledge the revolt of the Mahdi and the Gordon tragedy, and the advance of the Dervishes on Egypt, obliged England to call a halt. Thereupon followed the tedious campaign against the Mahdi, conducted over a railroad which was built for military purposes, but which has since been the most efficient agent for completing the peaceful conquest of the Sudan.
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> All this is related with much amplitude of statistics, and with the unimpassioned fairness and exactitude of an accountant. But occasionally there are bits of sparkling descriptions which relieve the tediousness of the narrative, as when Sir Auckland touches off in the following paragraph the salient features of the character and behavior of the English and French colleagues.
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> Keen of wit, incisive of tongue, choleric of disposition, sensitive as children, kindly as women, the Frenchman was the very opposite of the phlegmatic, imperturbable Briton. . . . Which of the pair did the most useful work it was not always easy to say, but the paces and showy movement of the Frenchmen were effective. They were never seen on the tennis court, nor in the saddle; nor did field sports attract them. Constant and often heated discussion with one or other was their relaxation; the black official portfolio their symbol; the frockcoat their habitual garb. There must have been something abhorrent to their passion for correctness in the negligent costume, the slack disregard of formality, the indifference to the outward and visible signs of office, which in Egypt, as elsewhere, distinguish Englishmen. But difference of temperament and of training seemed to draw together, rather than to repel. To their honor, be it said, the French sought to do their duty as conscientiously by the country which employed them, and by the colleagues who worked with them, as though their portion had been in France and their colleagues of their own nation.

On the whole, the book, despite the many romantic phases of the subject, is not exciting reading, but it supplies the safest guide to those who may wish to study one of the most interesting and far-reaching series of events which have occurred in our own time. It is an excellent supplement to Lord Milner's "England in Egypt," written after he had resigned the under-secretaryship for finance in that country. His fascinating book, published in 1892, balances hope against despair. Speaking of the financial situation then, in the last paragraph, he says:

> Of course it may be contended that, though financially the enterprise costs us nothing, Great Britain has not the strength to carry through the regeneration of Egypt consistently with the fulfilment of other and prior duties. To such arguments, if they can be established, all reasonable people would be prepared to listen, including, I hope, the present writer, who has now said his last word on this thorny subject, and whose constant aim has been to state the Egyptian Question temperately—recognizing, to the full, all the difficulties of our position, honestly admitting all its weaknesses. But in the absence of such arguments—and they are not yet forthcoming—the case for Perseverance holds the field.

Colvin's book shows how perseverance, practised by honest financiers and an able administrator, has conquered.

Five Years a Dragoon. By Percival G. Lowe. Kansas City: The Franklin Hudson Publishing Co.

Soldiers' autobiographies, seldom interesting to strangers, and more rarely of value to any one, have been common enough since 1865. But the experience of an intelligent regular before the civil war now appears for the first time. In "Five Years a Dragoon" Mr. Lowe embodies ten years of military life, five in the mounted ranks, and five as a high-grade quartermaster's employee, in active service on the great plains, beginning in 1850. The story was well worth waiting for, for besides its interest as "a human document," as the phrase goes, it is the history of a past never to be repeated, and full of peril and of an excitement that closely approaches romance. It is an enlisted man's supplement to Marcy's account as an officer. It describes from the inside that life of frequent storm and stress of which Parkman caught glimpses along "The Oregon Trail." There is nowhere a formal

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record of how the rough and often dissipated recruits were transformed into iron soldiery, who held positions or died in their tracks with no other thought than that of duty. No drill-book teaches the art. But the careful reader sees here that the officers, who were also gentlemen, encouraged the worthy, controlled the unruly, administered justice, and enforced obedience with an impartial and relentless hand, and solely for the public good, thus establishing a standard to which each in his own grade was insensibly drawn. Lost to the popular eye in the hordes of volunteers, the little army thus created was more than "a stone wall"; it was from end to end a *corps d'élite* that never had, and doubtless never will have, popular recognition of its service in the dark and stormy days of the rebellion. Ravaged by hostile fire, impossible to be recruited under the counter inducements for volunteers, it was frayed into nothingness before Appomattox was reached, and its reconstruction became a weary and difficult task.

Mr. Lowe's relation is a new proof that "the Captain and the First Sergeant make the company." In later days he would have been commissioned long before his enlistment had expired. Many a man with less military aptitude, merely because he had carried a rifle, has become a company officer, to say nothing of filling higher places. The wisdom of that policy is another question.

In these pages men afterward very famous, then young and unknown, cross the path. Cuvier Grover, Simon Buckner, Robert Williams, Eugene Carr, J. E. B. Stuart, John Buford, all subalterns who later became generals of renown, and others of greater rank, as Sedgwick, Harney, Sumner, Van Vliet, Fitz-John Porter, Albert Sidney Johnston, were building character by the inconspicuous discharge of routine duty often interspersed with peril and loaded with responsibility. Charged with practical hints about savages and civilians, mules and wagon trains, troop horses and troopers, this is an important contribution to a phase of American history, the opening of the great plains, whose intelligent record is so inconsiderable. There are occasional errors in proper names, and there is no pretence at literary style; but it is a good book. We make note of it not as essential literature, but as the truthful and unadorned story of a man who in a most modest sphere rendered valuable public service. Every collection of Americana should open for it, and many a library besides.

The Development of Palestine Exploration. By Frederick Jones Bliss, Ph.D. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50 net.

Both by nature and by art Dr. Bliss is equipped to speak with authority and sympathy on the subject of Syrian and Palestinian exploration. He is a quasi-Syrian, son of one president of the Syrian Protestant college at Beirut and brother of another; and he has spent much of his life in Palestine and its immediate vicinity. For about ten years, from 1890 to 1900, he was in the employ of the Palestine Exploration Fund, directing excavations at Lachish, Jerusalem, Gath, Maresha, and elsewhere, and he is the author of various volumes published by the Palestine Exploration Fund recounting these excavations. Before this he had already become known by his investigation of a curious survival of the Syrian language at Ma'lula and by other papers of interest to Semitic and Oriental scholars. It was natural and fitting that his *alma mater*, Union Theological Seminary, should select him to deliver the Ely Lectures in 1903, and that he should select as his subject the theme of Palestinian exploration.

The literature of Palestinian travel and exploration is enormous. Röhricht, in his "Bibliotheca Geographica Palæstina," counts 3,515 names of writers on the Holy Land between 333 and 1878 A. D.; and if one add to this the references for the preceding and succeeding periods, the total number of entries will approximate if not exceed 3,600. The latter years especially have witnessed a most minute search of archives and libraries for any manuscripts or works dealing with Palestine. Röhricht himself has been engaged in the publication of German pilgrimages, and several pilgrim narratives have lately been printed in the quarterly of the Deutscher Palæstina-Verein. Connected with the English Palestine Exploration Fund there is also a pilgrim publication account, while in France the Société de l'Orient Latin is engaged in the collection and publication of similar texts. Dr. Bliss has selected only the more important and characteristic publications from various periods. Precisely how many are referred to in this volume one can tell only by actual count, since there is no special index for that purpose. He has endeavored to arrange them in such a way as to show some sort of a development, but it must be frankly said that, except for the latter time, there is no real development in the series.

The first chapter deals with the topographical and geographical references of the Old Testament, the notices of Palestine in Egyptian and Assyrian literature, in Greek and Roman historians and geographers, including Josephus, and in the Talmud. Then we pass on to the age of pilgrimage, which carries us down beyond the Christian period and up to the close of the eleventh century; and after that to the Crusades, for which period Dr. Bliss has confined himself to Christian writers, to the exclusion of the Arabic sources. With the Dominican monk, Felix Fabre, toward the end of the fifteenth century, begins a sort of pre-modern period, which extends in Dr. Bliss's scheme to the year 1838. Here we have an odd miscellany of ignorant pilgrim narratives and archæological, botanical, meteorological, and, in general, scientific writings, none of which are of importance to-day, except as showing the general conditions of the country at that period and the Christian attitude of mind toward the Holy Land. The real exploration of Palestine begins with the American, Dr. Robinson, and indeed it is astonishing how large a part Americans have played in the exploration of Palestine in proportion to the material means at the disposal of the explorers. It was the United States which, through Lieut. Lynch, gave us the first scientific exploration of the Jordan and the Dead Sea. It was an American, Thomson, who first stirred the interest of Bible students the world over in the manners and life of the present inhabitants of Palestine and Syria as illustrative of Bible times and Bible customs; and it was Dr. Bliss, an American in the employ of an English society, who first conducted systematic excavations in Palestine.

It was becoming that, in lectures delivered at the Union Theological Seminary, in which Edward Robinson was so long a professor, Dr. Bliss should lay special stress on his importance in the history of Palestinian exploration; but he has no whit exaggerated that importance, nor was one lecture devoted to the subject of Robinson too much. It is astonishing what that man accomplished in the five months which covered his two journeys in Palestine in 1838 and 1852; and his account of those journeys is still a classic for the student of Palestinian geography and history. While deeply imbued with the religious spirit, Robinson broke loose from the trammels of tradition and applied scientific methods to the determination of localities. Simple as his method seems to us of to-day, it was a revelation at the time. His work aroused enormous interest in England and Germany, as well as in America, one result of which was the formation of the Palestine Exploration Fund, with its short-lived sister in this country, and a little later the Deutscher Palæstina Verein. These permanent organizations, especially the English Palestine Exploration Fund, have mapped practically the whole country, collected folklore and local traditions, and, from the study of topographical notices in the Bible and elsewhere, in connection with modern traditions and local place-names, identified by far the larger part of the Biblical sites. Latterly, they have begun systematic excavations. Out of this work, also, have been developed the French, American, and German (to mention them in their chronological order) schools for archæological and Biblical research and instruction established in Jerusalem itself.

One of the singular episodes of Palestinian exploration, to which Dr. Bliss devotes a chapter, is the expedition of the French Government under Renan, who conducted excavations on the Phœnician coast. This expedition was coincident with the French intervention in the Lebanon, occasioned by the Druse massacres in 1860, and the French fleet and French soldiers were placed at the disposal of the explorer. No explorer had greater opportunities than Renan, but, with all his ability in other directions, he had not the gifts or the training requisite for archæological exploration, and one can only say that, in view of the opportunities at his disposal, the *Expédition de Phénicie* was not a success. Far more important to the world at large was the impetus which this expedition and the opportunity of visiting the Holy Land gave to Renan's Biblical studies. Without it the world would never have known his "Vie de Jésus," which, whatever else may be said of it, is one of the most wonderful pictures of the scenery of Galilee ever painted, and one of the most sympathetic studies of the man Jesus ever written.

In his final chapter, Dr. Bliss speaks of the exploration of the future, but with no very great definiteness. Commenting on the Turkish law of antiquities, he says:

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"Petty and illicit excavation is easy, while scientific excavation on a large scale is hampered by the tedious but necessary process of obtaining a permit." It might have been added that the law and its maladministration combined have discouraged and almost prevented scientific exploration; and in the meantime incalculable injury has been done through all Palestine by the indiscriminate opening of graves by the natives and the ransacking of supposed ancient sites to procure objects for sale to antiquity dealers and tourists. Dr. Bliss is most cautious in his prophecy as to the probable results of future excavations. He expects "a continuation in the future of the experiences of the past—a gradual aggregation of small things from which large inferences may be drawn, rather than some sudden and startling revelation on a grand scale"; but he admits that the surprises of the past have been of such a character that, in view of the very small amount of scientific excavation conducted in Palestine, it is impossible to forecast what the results of such excavation will be when sites of importance shall have been excavated.

This little volume is not a general account of explorations and discoveries in Palestine, with a summing up of results attained and a discussion of methods to be employed, but rather a partial bibliography of Palestinian exploration, with more or less extended comment—a sort of *catalogue raisonné*. It is extremely difficult to make a catalogue interesting, and it seems to us a matter of regret that Dr. Bliss did not prefer a more pictorial presentation of results, either choosing one or two representative writers from each period and letting them tell their story, or telling it for them in his own words, or else giving us such a summary of the writings of each period as should enable us to see what was the condition of the country at successive epochs. As it is, his work is neither a complete bibliography, with such notes as will enable a student to select what he wants for study, nor, on the other hand, is it a narrative of exploration. It falls midway between.

Some Ethical Gains through Legislation. By Florence Kelley, General Secretary of the National Consumers' League. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.

As a summary of what has already been accomplished in certain lines of social betterment, and a helpful guide toward promising avenues of fruitful effort in the future, we have seen nothing superior to Miss Kelley's well-written volume, the latest addition to the "Citizen's Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology." Miss Kelley's preparation for treating such a subject has been direct and practical. As special agent for the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Illinois, she made a thorough investigation of the needle-trades in the tenements of Chicago, in 1892. Subsequently, she held for four years the position of chief inspector of factories of Illinois. She was in charge of the Chicago division of the investigation of "the Slums of Great Cities" conducted by the United States Department of Labor, and for years she has been steadily engaged in "settlement work," first as a resident of Hull House in Chicago, and afterwards at the Nurses' Settlement in New York. To her work in all these relations she has brought not merely unflagging energy and an ardent desire to do good, but the less common virtues of trained intelligence and cool judgment as well.

Her most interesting chapters take up what she has well called "the right to childhood." If the functions of mature life are forced upon the child, through any cause whatever, the normal development which should attend this plastic period is impossible; and not only is the child robbed of its birthright to the full use of all its faculties, but society itself is poorer by the loss of what those faculties might have achieved, even if the child does not finally become a positive burden by proving incapable of self-support. The child is *ipso facto* incapable of appreciating the significance of childhood and maintaining its rights therein. The impossibility of depending upon parents to solve the problem is shown by the very fact that the problem exists. Philanthropic interest *applied directly* touches only individual cases. The State, through its general legislative power, is the one agent which can enter the field with any hope of success, and its sufficient warrant for doing so lies in its admitted guardianship of the health and good order of the community, and in its ultimate dependence for its own life and usefulness upon the production of the highest possible average of morals and intelligence in its citizens.

Miss Kelley shows that great progress has already been made in forbidding the employment of young children in labor sure to be detrimental to their development; New York and Illinois taking a decided lead in this work. She brings out clearly and conclusively the baselessness of the supposition, sometimes put forward through honest ignorance of the facts, but perhaps oftener the hypocritical claim of parties financially interested in the perpetuation of child labor, that such prohibition will bring suffering upon dependent parents and relatives, or lack of proper food and clothing to the children themselves. That the earnings of children sometimes go to just such ends is of course true, but investigation has shown that the cases are far more numerous in which the fact of these earnings has been made the basis for a life of idleness and vice on the part of able-bodied men and women. In any case, however, will a self-respecting people, once fully alive to the facts, consent that the burden of maintaining others incapable of self-support should be thrown upon mere children? Miss Kelley hails with great pleasure the growing tendency to put legal restraint upon the employment of young boys and girls in street occupations, such as the selling of newspapers, flowers, etc., and the telegraph and messenger service. Society can well afford, she thinks, to take care of all cases of real destitution supposed to be relieved by such employment, rather than to face the future cost of the crime and pauperism sure to be engendered by subjecting little boys and girls to the immoral influences inseparable from it. She cites two striking answers to the question, what is to become of boys and girls when suddenly thrown out of remunerative occupation by restrictive laws such as she advocates. When child labor was driven by law from the glassworks of Millville, N. J., a new school house had to be erected immediately to provide for the increased attendance; and the similar law passed by Illinois in 1893 forced the building of one new school house and the opening of an old one long out of use, by driving child labor from the Alton glassworks, previously one of the worst centres of all the evils inherent in the employment of children in manufacturing industries. In some States there has been a tendency to couple such legislation with exceptions in case of the children of widows, or other classes based upon some such plausible peculiarity; but investigation shows that the exception works more hardships than it averts, since it always sacrifices the interests of the child, and by no means always relieves real destitution. An indirect gain of this legislation, not thought of when it was originally proposed, is its restrictive effect on immigration. It has caused an already perceptible shrinkage in the stream of "half-grown, illiterate children brought into the congested manufacturing centres by sordid relatives for the express purpose of crowding into factories and sweatshops."

Compulsory education laws are, of course, to be classed with direct restrictions on child employment, each demanding the supplement of the other in order to work the desired effect. Miss Kelley lays down as the minimum requirement for an effective child-labor law that it should prohibit the employment of all children under fourteen years, of all under sixteen who do not measure at least sixty inches in height and weigh eighty pounds; of all under sixteen who cannot read fluently and write legibly simple sentences in the English language, of all under sixteen between the hours of 7 P. M. and 7 A. M., or longer than eight hours in any twenty-four, or longer than forty-eight hours in any week, and of all under sixteen in any occupation dangerous to life, limb, health, or morals. Of course, such danger is sometimes hard to prove in court; but the steady efforts of philanthropists like Miss Kelley are gradually bringing about a state of public feeling, under the influence of which such doubts will be resolved in the interest of the life, limb, health, or morals of the child, rather than the financial interest of the would-be employer. Effective legislation, she continues, must require the child who accepts employment to satisfy a competent officer that it is in good health, that it does not fall within any of the prohibitions before enumerated, and that it has attended school a full school year during the twelve months immediately preceding. The law must also put upon the parent the obligation of keeping the child in school, and of furnishing to the constituted authorities, before the child accepts employment, adequate evidence as to its age and schooling. For the employer, too, she lays down a list of requirements, very carefully thought out, and so brief, clear, and comprehensive that one is tempted to find in this passage itself the strongest possible support of her argument elsewhere, that women should be admitted to direct participation in the processes of government.

Her second general topic she entitles "the right to leisure." All legislation limiting the hours of labor without reference to age or sex, of course, falls under this

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head. She is an earnest advocate of the eight-hour system, believing that the limit is not low enough to impair the efficiency of labor, and that such a limit tends to produce steadier employment, and to enhance the moral and physical well-being of the laborer. To the argument that this and other such legislation impair the right of free contract on the part of the laborer, her answer is that this alleged right is a delusion, because the laborer, from the nature of the case, cannot meet the employer on equal terms, and will often feel obliged to consent to hours or other conditions entirely repugnant to his own judgment and feeling rather than run the risk of being thrown out of employment. He does not thank society, then, for refusing to create for him a legal right to a certain abount of leisure, enforceable without bringing him into conflict with his employer, and thus endangering his tenure of his job, on the plea that this would infringe upon a right of which he finds himself unable to make any satisfactory use in any case of conflict. Doubtless questions will arise here in the minds of many who can follow Miss Kelley without hesitation in all that she advocates for the legislative protection of children, since children have neither the power to help themselves nor the maturity of judgment to recognize many of the most serious injuries which may be inflicted upon them. Her facts and arguments, however, are such as no student of the problems involved can afford to neglect.

The New Earth. By W. S. Harwood. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1906. $1.75 net.

This short title on the cover is a little too sensational for so useful a book. It does not matter whether the name was meant to catch the eye of those who have in mind the Scriptural association of the new heavens and the new earth, or the smaller class, belonging to the Tolstoy school, who have considered chiefly a new ownership of our present earth. The book has a far more modest aim than to attempt the task of revealing these mysteries, namely, "a recital of the triumphs of modern agriculture in America." It would not bring harm to any of the theologians or reformers to study this recital of triumphs, for even the most pessimistic would come to feel that sure steps are now being taken towards making this a better world.

The volume has a certain scrappiness here and there, as if the chapters had first been used in magazines, but, on the whole, it is consistent and compact. Probably, too, if a second edition is called for, some of the "fine writing" may be advantageously toned down; but the whole movement is brisk from start to finish and the pages are readable throughout. The author has a happy knack of selecting from the solid mass of agricultural statistics the striking facts which would, in a yellow journal, make uncommonly good "scare" headlines. For instance: "The particles in a single cubic foot of average farm-soil for general use, usually roundish in shape, expose to the roots of plants an area of surface three acres in extent. To show how very small these particles are, it should be noted that fully one-half of the cubic foot of soil is air-space, so that if it were not for the air it would contain twice as many particles." Again: "One investigator, noting the size of the bacteria that appear in milk, says that if they could be increased to the size of baseballs, and a man should be increased in the same proportion, he would stand over fifty miles high." All of which is true. Now, out of the immense accumulations of data in modern agriculture the author has chosen such facts as these and put them in a novel form.

Mr. Harwood begins by contrasting the old farming, cheerless in most of its aspects and crushed by depressing mortgages, with the well-stocked acres belonging to modern scientific agriculture, its books, its music, and the balance in the bank. "The period of the New Earth is more than a renaissance, a revival; it is an era of creation, the most remarkable in history." Under the heading, the "Brain of the Earth," the author deals with the composition and physical properties of soils, as introductory to "Soil-inoculation" by bacteria. Having disposed of the subject of a new soil for plants, he passes naturally to new plants to fit the soil. Here he takes up the matters connected with the breeding of seeds to produce better plants, and he gives a very good synopsis of the most remarkable achievements in this direction, especially as far as horticultural and agricultural varieties are concerned. Chapters follow on modern forestry and modern dairying, in which the layman will find many surprises. The results obtained by laboratory study of bacteria in milk and the utilization of certain forms in the making of butter and cheese are lightly touched upon, but the grand aggregate is amazing to all who have not kept up with recent progress in this work.

The chapter on animal husbandry is carefully, not to say very cautiously, written. And this may well be:

> Perhaps in no other line of modern life has there been displayed during this period so much selfishness and so great a determination on the part of unfair capital to take advantage of the necessities of the people; and yet those who provide the supply for the demand, however greatly misused they have been, have not allowed this selfishness to prevent them from advancing.

After this comes an interesting section devoted to the reclamation of the desert lands of the Far Southwest by irrigation and by the introduction of nutritive plants from other climates. Finally, the author discusses the food supply of the world and the benefits of coöperative industry. He shows the importance of the work now, in hand by the Department of Agriculture and its associated experiment-stations, and one can say that there is no exaggeration in the astonishing assertions. Until one examines the whole ground carefully, it is impossible to see why the Department of Agriculture annually comes before Congress as a solicitant of favors; it has the right to demand adequate support. This support it does not have, because its work often runs counter to the organized selfishness of innumerable constituencies. Formerly it was the fashion to ridicule the work of the Agricultural Department as being largely library-farming, and perhaps parts of the earlier reports were fair game for the humorists of that day. That day has passed. Doctrinaires have been mostly displaced by practical men, who are accomplishing great results. But where they meet the resistance of intrenched selfishness, as has been and is the case in certain forest reservations and in certain *uncertain* foods, it is an uphill fight. Not unfrequently, those who are disturbed by the Department, attempt to make use of the old weapon of ridicule. A perusal of Mr. Harwood's book will show how unjust this ridicule is. The reader will be obliged to admit that the triumphs of American agriculture, during the last few years, have been many and most gratifying, and that a large share of this success is due to the original work in our Department of Agriculture and to its skilful appropriation, with due credit, of work in the same fields of thought throughout the scientific world.

Carlyle and Goethe. By Otto Baumgarten. New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Few critics who have sought to trace German influence in foreign thought and literature have been on safer ground than Baumgarten, who ascribes much of the Scot's greatness directly to the example and influence of the German immortal, although he sees in the two men of genius the most contradictory types: "Goethe, the clear eye, the bright, sunny look, the susceptibility for cosmos, objectiveness and æsthetic pleasure in Nature, the harmonic moulding of his life as a work of art; Carlyle, the gloomy, veiled eye, the dark glance into the black pits of life, the wrought-out spleen, the violent separation from the wide world, the narrowing to that which to subjectiveness appears heroic, the complete sacrifice of all æsthetic points of view to the ethical, the discordance of his personal as well as his married life." That Goethe stood for a *Mustermann* to Carlyle, the latter's own works have made known: we think of Carlyle doing much to introduce Goethe in England, and of Emerson, leaning on Carlyle, composing his "Goethe, or the Writer," one of the best estimates of the Weimar Olympian ever penned in English. It is not so generally known that a considerable correspondence took place between Carlyle and Goethe, and that an early edition of Carlyle's 'Schiller,' issued while Goethe still lived, contains an introduction in German from Goethe, and several letters in German between the two authors. Whether this new presentation of Carlyle is pushed too far is likely, at this late day, to be variously regarded, less according to scholarship than to bias of nationality. Baumgarten, taking Froude severely to task for what he believes is an incomplete and partial portraiture of Carlyle, finds more than an ordinary touch of two great souls; to him Carlyle is a pupil of Goethe, turning away from an overdose of Schiller in his youth, absorbing Goethe's *Persönlichkeitsideal*, celebrating Luther, Frederick the Great, and Bismarck as its embodiment, and preaching to his countrymen the wisdom of giving sober thought to their spiritual relation to the Germans. Goethe was to Carlyle even more than Jane Welsh; in his struggles for a *Weltan-*

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schauung he found in Goethe his rock and fortress; it was Goethe who led him to the "Eternal Yes." The life-work of Goethe became reflected in Carlyle; "in 'Wilhelm Meister,' especially, Carlyle found a mirror which revealed to him the ground-lines of his own genius"; 'Sartor Resartus' is but an after-effect of Goethean influence; Carlyle's 'Hero Worship' arose from a study of Goethe's ideals as expressed in particular in "Faust"; and in Carlyle's sociological and religious ideas there is astonishing agreement with those of the Spinozan poet. What Baumgarten does *not* find is the least influence of Carlyle on Goethe!

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ball, W. W. Rouse. Trinity College, Cambridge. Dutton. 75 cents net.
Bell, Mrs. Arthur G. Picturesque Brittany. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Carmichael, Montgomery. The Life of John William Walshe. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Chapman and Shirley's The Tragedie of Chabot. Edited by Ezra Lehman. University of Pennsylvania.
Conyngton, Mary. How to Help. The Rowland Press.
Deland, Margaret. The Awakening of Helena Richie. Harpers. $1.50.
Early Western Travels. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. Vol. 2: Maximilian's Travels in North America. Cleveland, O.: Arthur H. Clark Co.
Goolrick, John T. The Life of General Hugh Mercer. Neale Publishing Co. $1.50.
"Gramme." The Money of the Future. The Peck Press.
Henshaw, Julia W. Mountain Wild Flowers of America. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2 net.
Hillern's Höher als die Kirche. Edited by Clarence W. Eastman. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Irwin, Will. The City that Was. B. W. Huebsch. 50 cents net.
Johnson, Claude Ellsworth. The Training of Boys' Voices. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co. 75 cents.
Jones, Chester Lloyd. The Consular Service of the United States. University of Pennsylvania.
Lajonquière, E. Luner de. Le Siam et les Siamois. Paris: Armand Colin.
Lendrum, Robert A. An Outline of Christian Truth. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark.
Levy, Oscar. The Revival of Aristocracy. Translated by Leonard A. Magnus. London: Probsthain & Co.
Martin, Sir Theodore. Monographs: Garrick, Macready, Rachel, and Baron Stockmar. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Miles, Eustace. Essays in the Making. Dutton. $1 net.
Pierce, James O. Studies in Constitutional History. Minneapolis: The H. W. Wilson Co.
Platonis Opera. Tomus I., Fasc. I. Oxford Press.
Santayana, George. Sonnets and other Verses. Duffield & Co.
Sauter, Edwin. The Poisoners. Published by the author.
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